The Nation.

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The Week.

THE Democratic convention in Wisconsin on June 23, like that in Minnesota a fortnight earlier, declared in favor of the gold standard and against the free coinage of silver. As the Republicans in these States had previously taken the same position, both parties in Wisconsin and Minnesota are now committed to the doctrine of sound money that is really sound. The same thing is true of the Republicans, who are the dominant party, in North Dakota; the Democrats there have not yet held their convention. These three States constitute that section of the Union where the foreign element is the largest anywhere to be found, the proportion of the population whose parents, one or both, were foreigners, being 73.69 per cent. in Wisconsin, 75.42 per cent. in Minnesota, and 78.98 per cent. in North Dakota. Those persons who think that foreign ignorance is what threatens the stability of American institutions, will do well to contrast the financial history and present position of these three States with the record and attitude of three such States as Kansas, where the foreign element is only 26.78 per cent., Missouri with 24.98 per cent., and Kentucky with but 9.87 per cent.

The Democrats of Illinois went wild last week for free silver and free riots. "The arbitrary interference on the part of the federal Government in local affairs," they say, "by ignoring the lawful authorities, is not only a violation of the Constitution of the United States, but a crime against free government, and is destructive of the very foundation of democratic and republican institutions." This refers to Debs and the great strike and boycott of the American Railway Union. It affirms virtually that if a riot breaks out in any place which stops the running of cars, the movement of interstate commerce, and of the United States mails, and if the Governor of the State is in sympathy with the rioters and neglects to suppress their unlawful acts, then the President of the United States must do nothing but allow the rioters to have their way. This is Altgeld's theory of free institutions—freedom to throw trains off the track, to burn loaded cars in the midst of great cities, to kill conductors and engineers if they attempt to perform their duty, and to strangle the trade and commerce of the whole country. Naturally the passage of this resolution by the convention is followed by another cordially endorsing the administration of Gov. Altgeld. Illinois would be in a pitiable condition if such a man could be re-elected as her chief magistrate after all that he has done to produce chaos in her principal city. It was right for the convention to renominate Altgeld. It is time to find out what sort of people inhabit the State, and whether life and property are really safe there—a question which can be determined in no other way so speedily and surely as by putting his name before the voters for their suffrages once more. Four years ago they did not know the man. Now they know him very well.

Mr. Whitney's absurd New York Democratic platform has been received by the silver Democrats in just the way that might have been expected. It heartens them greatly. If that is the best the Democracy of New York can do, the silverites may gayly run down their steep place into the sea. For argument, all they need to do is to point to Mr. Whitney's concessions. He gives the whole case away. All he lacks is the courage of his convictions. *That* they will supply in unlimited quantities, with the courage of their ignorance thrown in. He is all very well as a philosopher to point out the way where he dare not go, but they are the men of action who will translate his reasoning into deeds. What the silver Democrats dreaded was an outspoken and uncompromising gold platform from the New York Democracy, with a bolt distinctly threatened. If such a platform had been put out last April, it would have had a powerful effect in other States. But to wait till the end of June, and then give forth a lot of mushy bimetallism, was the surest way to make New York Democrats contemptible in the eyes of the party and the nation.

The Democratic nomination for the Presidency will not be made for a week, and the canvass never really opens until some weeks after the last of the conventions. But the fight for control of the next House of Representatives is already on, and, as we have previously said, that body will hold the key to the situation. The Senate, from 1897 to 1899, will surely be controlled by the silverites. With either the nominee of the Chicago convention or McKinley in the White House, we can no longer depend upon the President for protection from the silver madness, as has been the case under Cleveland. The only assurance of salvation will be in the election of a House of Representatives a majority of which will prevent any concession whatever to silver. The pressure for some concession will be tremendous. If McKinley shall be elected, he will come in pledged to give the country a high tariff. The Senate will "hold up" any tariff bill until the ransom price is paid in the shape of an agreement to coin more silver dollars, or buy more silver bullion, or coin the seigniorage. What is absolutely essential is a majority in the House which cannot be inveigled or bulldozed by the protected interests into a surrender to the silverites.

In order to secure such a majority, the sound-money men must go to work without a moment's delay. Two members of the next House have already been elected—Republicans from Oregon who favor "doing something for silver." Two Republicans have already been nominated in Kansas districts upon silver platforms. Silver Republican newspapers in the West, like the Detroit *Tribune*, are urging the immediate organization of the silver forces to capture the caucuses and secure the nomination of Representatives who will pledge themselves to favor silver legislation. Congressman Aitken of the Sixth Michigan District, a Republican who seeks reëlection, declares that he is "bitterly opposed to a single gold standard, and will not tolerate it." Republican Representatives in other Western States are explaining that the St. Louis platform really commits the party only to opposition to free coinage, and declaring that they will favor other silver legislation if they shall be returned to the next House. Such developments as these show the imperative necessity for equally vigorous action on the part of the sound-money men at once. Nominations in a large proportion of the districts will be made before the Presidential canvass really opens in September. If the believers in a gold standard postpone work until then, they may find that it is too late to avert the danger of an untrustworthy House of Representatives.

All the outgivings from Canton indicate that McKinley and his managers will try to make the tariff the issue of the campaign. "The tariff is the only issue, of course," says the great Hanna, after a conference with the candidate. "There is but one issue, and that is the tariff," says Thomas McDougall, a Cincinnati politician, after a similar conference. "The drift of all McKinley's speeches and conversation thus far," writes William E. Curtis, who knows him well, to the Chicago *Record*, "is towards a revival of interest in the tariff, which the national committee will force to the front as an issue in the campaign." It is easy enough to say that the tariff shall be the issue, but how are McKinley, Hanna, and the rest going to make it such? A new tariff can be secured only through a trade with the silver men, like the one in 1890, when Teller & Co. insisted upon the silver-purchase act before they would let

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the McKinley bill become a law. So long as this is the case, the financial question must be the chief issue. To say that all the country wants is revenue, and that the Republicans will pass a tariff bill that will give this revenue, will deceive nobody when every one knows that the Senate will never let such a bill through unless another blow shall be dealt at the stability of our currency system. It is right to say, however, that McKinley on Friday made a speech at Canton, in which for the first time he defined his dollar satisfactorily. He said it must be a dollar "good for a dollar, not only at home, *but in every mart and market-place of the world.*"

It is a curious survival of the Blaine campaign that clergymen should have taken to writing letters to the newspapers calling attention to McKinley's exemplary church-going habits. The objections to Blaine were, indeed, of a sort which a good record for church attendance would tend to rebut; though it would also be consistent with the theory that he was not only a dishonest man, but a hypocrite as well. But McKinley's personal character is not called in question, and testimony as to that can hardly be taken as a conclusive reply to the doubts about him which are really troubling people. What they want to know is, if he is the man, by knowledge and conviction and force of character, to take charge of the nation's finances at a crisis of unexampled gravity. They crave assurances that a man who endorsed notes up to ten times the amount of his property will not consider that method a safe one in conducting the business of the Government. They are anxiously trying to find out whether he will resolutely veto a bill for the further purchase of silver and inflation of the currency, and whether he will exhaust every power lodged in the Executive to maintain gold payments before he will see them fail. Really, we must point out to the reverend logicians, it is no answer to say that McKinley is regularly in his pew on Sunday mornings, or that he does not beat his old mother.

The working of the McKinley magic is already visible in business, as all earnest thinkers knew it would be, though it is a little hard to follow the process. A surprising falling off in our worsted and cotton imports from England is reported for the past four months. This is as it should be. McKinley simply will not have imports. The trembling Britishers know this, and would not, of course, risk their goods in a land where the eye of a McKinley is upon every recreant American who dares to wear a foreign coat or shirt. To be sure, the falling off appears to have occurred under the wicked Wilson tariff, of which the main design was to strengthen England's "hold" upon us, but what we would ask is, did it occur until McKinley was "sure to be nominated"? We rather think not, and we believe a careful comparison of dates would show that the diminution of exports from Bradford was coincident with the visit of the *Tribune's* London correspondent to that unhappy city. The manufacturers learned from him that it was all up with them, and that no more of their exports would be received in this country. Then there is the closing of our own cotton mills, threatened on an extensive scale on account of overproduction. At first sight, one would say that McKinley should have stopped this. Can the manufacturers have forgotten to appeal to him, instead of simply consulting the market, before ordering the shutdown? He might have told them that their trouble was all due to the cursed Wilson tariff. He might have believed it; but they would not, because they have testified, through their spokesman, Senator Aldrich, that the cotton schedules of the Wilson bill were the most scientific and thoroughly protective ever framed. Like talking with Mrs. Tulliver, this is all "puzzling work," and we fear that the puzzle of it will grow denser from week to week.

The London *Economist* explains why the adoption of the gold plank at St. Louis did not send up the price of American securities abroad "with a sharp bound." In the first place, it says, there is not in the resolution a "a breath of strong conviction," and the long dodging and bad record of McKinley had filled foreign investors with fears which the platform alone could not allay. But further than this, not a hint, not a suspicion of a suggestion, is given in the platform as to the way in which the existing gold standard is to be preserved. President Cleveland, with his heart in the work, has been struggling to do that all through his administration, and by the only method now available. For doing so he has been denounced like a pickpocket by Republicans. They now say they are going to maintain the gold standard, but of measures to do it they breathe not a word. Foreign investors, says the *Economist*, want to see a definite programme of currency reform before they will be prepared to pin their faith and their money to a platform generality. On top of all these doubts come the militant and extravagant policy of the planks relating to foreign affairs, and the general threat to trade involved in the promise of a return to Chinese-wall protection. Thus the gold plank at St. Louis, while it undoubtedly prevented something like a panic which would have resulted from a free-silver or straddling platform, did not positively and efficaciously reassure foreign markets. For the reasons mentioned by the *Economist*, "they have failed to respond as was expected," and, it adds, "it cannot be said that their caution is unjustifiable."

Gov. Morton's selection of ex-Mayor Gilroy as member of the Greater New York Charter Commission, in place of Mr. Fitch, who declined to serve, is a most indefensible act. It would have been difficult to find in this city a more thoroughly unfit man. Certainly none more so could have been found outside the membership of Tammany Hall. Mr. Gilroy is nothing except a Tammany man, and the Governor has no reason for putting him upon the Commission except as a representative of that organization. He is certainly not a representative of the city and its interests, as he has had no training which fits him to be of assistance in evolving a system of government for the proposed great city. The only science of government that he has ever studied is that which Tammany carries out when it is in possession of public office. Everybody knows how Gilroy executed that as Mayor. He put Scannell the murderer into the Fire Department, put Sheehan the Buffalo defaulter into the Police Department, and obliged Tom Platt by giving Sheehan as associates two Republican Boys, Mike Kerwin and Charlie Murray; made Barney Martin and Joe Koch Police Justices, and Mike Daly Commissioner of Public Works. He has no idea of public office except to turn it to the personal profit of himself and his political associates, who are mainly persons of disreputable character, dissolute and irregular lives, and general ignorance. It is an insult to every reputable man on the Commission to ask him to sit with Gilroy as an associate.

The city of Milwaukee has been the scene of the most extensive application of the boycott ever seen in this country. On the 4th of May the men employed by the company which operates the street-car lines struck for higher pay, which the company refused. The usual concomitants of such a strike followed for a few days—difficulty in operating the cars until a full force of new men could be secured, with more or less disorder and assaults upon the "scabs." This state of things did not last long, however. The company had soon manned the cars, and its full service was resumed. Then came the novel feature of the strike. The former employees declared a boycott of the cars. Such orders have been issued under similar circumstances in other cities, notably in the great Third Avenue strike in New York a few years ago, but never before were they regarded by more than a small portion of the laboring element in the community. In Milwaukee, on the other hand, the strikers were at first able to make practically the whole population abandon the street-cars, and either patronize the 'busses and

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other conveyances which they put on the principal streets, or walk. It is actually true that for days cars would go along routes where they were ordinarily well filled at all times and crowded sometimes, and not average more than one passenger a trip, even in the "rush" hours. Business men, professional men, all classes, were threatened with loss of patronage, law-suits, damages of every sort, if they should ride in the cars. For some time the public was so much dazed that hardly anybody dared to defy the boycott. Gradually, however, most of the people recovered their senses and their courage, resumed patronage of the cars, the 'busses lost their passengers, and at last the managers of the strike declared the boycott "off," having secured nothing for themselves out of the strike, and only diminished the power of the company for a long time to pay the higher wages that they sought.

Judge Wright of the Illinois Circuit Court has declared unconstitutional and void the State law requiring the national flag to be displayed over every school-house. The case came before him in the form of a motion to quash indictments found against certain school trustees and other officials for failing to execute the law. The Legislature had made such violation of the law a misdemeanor, and therein, so Judge Wright holds, had exceeded its powers. The decision hinged on this point. There was no question of the right of the State to order the flag flown on any of its buildings, at such times and in such a manner as it saw fit. The effect of this decision will be to make patriotism, in so far as it consists in flinging the flag to the breeze, optional. This may seem a horrid conclusion to some perfervid brethren, but, after all, it simply puts patriotism in the same category with the other leading virtues. It is perhaps unfortunate that we cannot by law compel all citizens to be sober, saving, honest, kind to wife and child, but we cannot; nor can we, if Judge Wright's exposition of the law is sound, compel them to be patriotic. Illinois school-children may incur great civic dangers by not being allowed to see the flag above their heads. Certainly they will be as much at sea as the rest of us about the great McKinley definition of "sound money"—that it is something "as untarnished as the flag." Still, they may learn in their school histories that the flag was very badly tarnished in the Mexican war, Gen. Grant being witness, and so not lose so much after all. Anyhow they will have to be patriotic, as they will have to be virtuous, from an inward spring if at all, and not by act of Legislature.

At the meeting of the Tory members of the House of Commons on June 15, when the melancholy announcement was made by Mr. Balfour that not one of his pet and promised bills could be passed, a remark was made by the veteran Sir John Mowbray which elicited the only real applause of the afternoon. It was to the effect that he hoped one result of the grand fiasco, as of the experience of the late Liberal Government, would be to teach parties the folly of overloading their legislative programme. In other words, this thing of promising the millennium out of hand, and then going on to leave Satan just as visibly unchained as before, is getting to be wearisome. For nothing did Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury and Chamberlain rail more caustically at the Liberals than for having undertaken so much more than they could possibly perform. Yet they at once promised three times as much—very naturally, having three times the majority. But here is their first session gone to wreck, and all their promises gone to protest. Whether parties will learn wisdom from the unexampled breakdown, may be doubted, despite Sir John Mowbray's pious hopes. Parties are bound to bid against each other for popular support, and the highest bidder seems to carry off the prize. If one side promises the millennium, the other must pledge itself to bring in two, with the Golden Age and the *Saturnia regna* thrown in. Of course the bigger the promises, the bigger the smash when they are unfulfilled; but the temptation to win votes by the easy process of making promises seems to be too much for mortal politicians. The Republican platform, for example, contains a tremendous array of solemn undertakings to do things that the framers knew would not and could not be done. All they had their eye on was the election, which they hoped to win by promising everything, and then afterwards get up some diversion, like a foreign war, to appease the disgusted and enraged voters.

Mr. Balfour's failure as leader of the House of Commons is partly the fault of his party and more the inevitable result of his temperament. An impossible task was laid on him—the task which Mr. Bright described as that of driving six coaches-and-four abreast through a street where but one at a time could go. Too many and too complex bills were given him, with orders to pass them this session. The thing could not be done. But the great incapacity is that of Mr. Balfour's own mental make-up. He is infinitely bored by the dreary speech-making of the House of Commons. Nine hours of it is more than his refined and subtle intellect can endure. He will not sit it out. But the prime requisite in a successful leader of the House is constant and watchful attendance. Even the cynical Disraeli recognized this fact and was unflaggingly at his post. Mr. Gladstone, up to the very end, especially when the home-rule bill was pending, was always on the Treasury bench, except when he was springing to his feet to controvert some dullard over whom Mr. Balfour would only have groaned inwardly and then gone out. So notoriously slack is his attendance on the House that the fact is frequently thrown in his face. He attempted to reply to Sir William Harcourt, the other day, when the Liberal chief turned on him roughly with the question how he could venture to answer a speech he had not heard. Such things are fatal to the discipline of party and the prestige of the leader. As Mr. Lucy says: "The House of Commons is a team that may be successfully driven only by an undeputed coachman always on the box-seat." Mr. Balfour's ability is unquestioned, but the ablest man that ever lived could not succeed in his place unless he made up his mind to chain himself to his seat in the House, to suffer fools gladly, and to have the run of business and debating always accurately in mind. All this is no doubt distasteful to a speculative intellect like Mr. Balfour's, but then, as the man said about writing a sonnet, it is so easy *not* to be leader of the House, and the speculative intellect essaying it must take on the air and the methods of the hard-hitting, practical, galley-slave intellect.

The Pope's latest encyclical on Christian unity is a very elaborate argument for Roman supremacy, but how it touches existing conditions and problems it is hard to see. His long and careful demonstration that the Church of Rome is the most likely centralized and authoritative exponent of Christian doctrine and practice, will be shed as so much water from the backs of those who, like the Protestants, deny the desirability of having any such authority at all, or, like the Greek Christians, affirm that Rome has widely departed from the primitive faith. Thus the whole encyclical necessarily has an unpractical air, like a bit of laboratory experimentation, with little regard to the hard and ugly facts. The Pope has before made friendly and charitable advances to both the Greek and Anglican Churches. Nothing resulted in either case except a polite but firm refusal to take a step towards that union of Christendom which consists in submission to Rome. After these rebuffs in the practical sphere, it looks as if Leo XIII. had determined at any rate to put on record the reasons he has for believing that he is right. His encyclical will make an excellent thesis for use in Catholic seminaries. Those who are already convinced will find it irrefragable. It is very learned, very logical (granting the premises quietly assumed), and is argued through with the air of a disinterested and detached philosopher. But the philosopher is, unfortunately, so detached from the facts confronting him that his reasoning cannot be expected to have any practical results.

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THE ISSUE OF THE CAMPAIGN.

MR. MCKINLEY, in his speech at Canton on Saturday, made an allusion to the money question as one of the issues of the campaign. It came out rather slowly, but it came nevertheless, and what he said encourages us to believe that he will say more by and by. He said that it was one of the missions of the Republican party to give the country a dollar which would pass for a dollar in every market-place in the world. Now, the only dollar that passes for 100 cents in all the markets of the world is the gold dollar. It certainly is the mission of the Republican party to preserve this dollar, and it is equally the mission of the gold dollar to preserve the party, for everybody can see that this is to be the overtopping issue of the campaign. The men who are prating about the tariff, and pretending that protection is in danger under schedules of duties averaging 42 per cent. ad valorem—a tariff higher than Mr. Morrill ever drew in his palmiest days—will not be heard of two months hence, or at all events will not be listened to. Their voices will be completely lost in the 16-to-1 whirlwind. Mr. McKinley's speech shows a dawning recognition of the kind of campaign that is now beginning.

The Sunday papers contained an interview with Mr. Whitney in which he acknowledges that he does not expect to change the purpose of the silver majority at Chicago. They are too many and too stubborn, he says. They are going to adopt a platform which will disrupt the party because honorable men cannot stand on it. Very true. We have foreseen that catastrophe to the party for some weeks. We say now that it is best for the country that the silver majority should go on and do what they were appointed to do, for if they should turn around at the instance of Mr. Whitney and go against their instructions, the country would put no confidence in their change of heart. People would say that they had been false to their constituents. Moreover, a change on their part would not change their constituents. All the poison of 16 to 1 would be rankling among them as before, and would be more virulent than ever by reason of such treachery. It would have to be doctored just the same. The delegates to Chicago, in the improbable event of their being lured away by sirens, would simply disappear beneath the waves. Their successors, whether calling themselves Democrats, or Populists, or Teller men, would be in full panoply, if not this year, then next year and thereafter until beaten in fair fight, perhaps more than once.

There is still another reason why it is best that the silver majority at Chicago should do what they were appointed to do. If they should turn around and adopt a straddling platform, the sound-money Democrats, or most of them, would then vote their own ticket. The Democratic party would be no safer than it is now, but the sound-money vote would be divided. It is not impossible in that event that the Democrats might elect enough Congressmen to make a majority, with the aid of the Populists and the Teller Republicans. It is needless to point out the dangers of such a combination. The thing most to be desired is that the sound-money vote of the country should be united on the Presidential ticket, and united on Congressmen wherever the silverites are anywhere near one-half of the total vote.

Still another reason for wishing the Democrats at Chicago to do what they have been bidden to do is that the business of the country will never be on a sound footing as long as the present uncertainty about the money standard continues. Even our esteemed contemporaries of the McKinley League ought to see this now. They have been telling us that their candidate was the advance agent of prosperity, that he was sure to be nominated and sure to be elected, and that his very name was going to make good times. Yet business does not improve. Last year was bad for trade, but this year is worse. There has been no lack of McKinley to account for the dulness. He is nominated. He will probably be elected, but there is just enough doubt about it to leave a shadow on the standard of value, by which credit is impaired. The banks are putting themselves in condition to meet the worst. Men who have money refuse to lend it because they do not know what they will get back. There is much less talk about the advance agent of prosperity now than there was two months ago.

The question what shall be the issue of the campaign, is one which cannot be settled by McKinley, or Hanna, or the Republican national committee. It is settled by the people. The issue of any campaign is that question in which the people are most deeply interested. That question this year is the currency. The free coinage of silver is advocated earnestly as the only cure of the hard times. It is a dogma which finds a host of men ready to accept it as the true faith. It will be preached upon every stump in every doubtful State. It will carry such States unless it is met. If the Democratic campaign in such States as Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and even Ohio, were to be made for free coinage, and the Republicans, instead of meeting these arguments, were to do nothing but talk high tariff, they would deserve to lose them, and probably would get their deserts.

The time has come for every man who has saved anything, even though it be only ten dollars in a savings bank, to fight for the ownership of it. The demand for free-silver coinage is a demand for a division of property. It is even worse than that, for a division might conceivably be made without losing any part of the whole, but a division by changing the value of the dollar would involve enormous losses by which nobody would be the gainer. Such losses are taking place now through the interruption of industry, the lack of enterprise, the curtailment of credit which everybody feels and for which there is no visible or ascertainable cause except the threatened change in the measure of values. It is proposed to divide the dollar in two parts, to give one-half to the owner, and have a scramble for the other half with the chance of losing it altogether. This is the vital issue, and the Republican party will win if it has the sense to make its campaign on it. If we could imagine the party to be so stupid as to allow the Democrats to fill the land with free-silver literature and stump speeches, and attempt to meet them with tariff arguments (especially McKinley tariff arguments), we would not give much for their chances at the end of the campaign.

THE NEW YORK DEMOCRATIC PLATFORM.

WE had hoped that the efforts of the Eastern delegates to the Chicago convention might be effectual in preventing that body from taking a plunge to the silver standard, and that the New York delegates especially would go thither with a weighty declaration of principles—one that should present a very stiff barrier to the mad rush of the South and West. We have been disappointed, notwithstanding some excellent features that have been incorporated in the platform adopted at Saratoga.

The first thing in this platform is an appeal to the party faith as revealed unto Thomas Jefferson that "the monetary unit must stand on both metals." If Jefferson were alive, he would be astonished to learn that this was an article of party faith and that he was the author of it. The saying came about in this way. Hamilton, the leader of the Federalists, was preparing his report on the establishment of a mint. He took facts as he found them—among others the fact that both silver and gold were in use as money throughout the world at ratios differing somewhat in different countries. So he decided that both metals ought to be received and coined at our mint, at a ratio coinciding as closely as possible with their value in the market. He put this idea in his report, and sent it to Jefferson for his advice and criticism before sending it to Congress. Jefferson read the paper, made certain remarks upon it in writing, and returned it to the author. Among his notes were the words: "I agree with you that the monetary unit must stand upon both metals." In citing the passage the platform-makers at Saratoga omit the words "I agree with you." Those words show that it was not the original conception of Jefferson, and that it was not "a declaration of party faith," but merely an expression of Jefferson's concurrence

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with his chief political opponent on a matter of business.

This misconception or misquotation is not, however, the chief point of objection to the platform. The chief objection is that it confirms the silverites in their present beliefs. When you tell them that party faith requires that "the monetary unit must stand upon both metals," they say, "That is just what we are fighting for." When you tell them that this article of party faith cannot be realized until something else is done by some other country or countries, they reply that articles of party faith cannot wait for ever for realization; that they have waited twenty years for Europe to come upon Jefferson's platform; that as often as Europe has been invited to do so, she has declined, and that it is useless to wait longer. If the declaration of party faith is to be kept alive, if it is ever to become a vital principle, it must be put in force by ourselves; and why not now as well as at any other time?

The next paragraph of the platform is as *malapropos* as the previous one. It "arraigns" the Republican party for demonetizing silver in 1873. "The action of a Republican Congress and a Republican President," it says, "deprived silver of its equality with gold for the money and currency of the nation." "Exactly so," replies Bland; "Exactly so," echoes Tillman; and the words go reverberating through the ranks of the silverites from the Potomac to the Rio Grande and the Columbia. This was "the crime of 1873"; we are going to punish it now. "From this act," continues the Saratoga platform, "(for which the Democratic party was in no wise responsible), and from the action of other nations following in the same course, it has resulted that silver has greatly declined in commercial value, and there now exists a wide departure of the two metals from the coinage standard of value—bringing disturbance to the financial systems of European countries as well as to our own, and awakening there, as here, the earnest apprehension of statesmen and financiers." All of which; besides being a gratuitous assumption, serves to confirm the silver men in their opinion that they are redressing a great wrong, and that if they succeed, they will bring back prosperity instead of plunging the country into a deeper abyss than it has ever known before.

The truth is, that no disturbance was produced by the adoption of the single gold standard either in this country or in Europe. On the contrary, the most frequent and serious cause of disturbance previously existing was removed, namely, the oscillations due to the changes of market value of the two metals. Great prosperity followed, especially in this country. From 1879 to 1890, with a few brief intervals, due to over-speculation, the United States enjoyed a most prosperous career. It was in the last-mentioned year that the Sherman silver act was passed. It was in that year that confidence in the standard of value was first seriously shaken, and from that year to this it has been subjected to frequent shocks, and will continue to be as long as there is a party formidable in numbers threatening to reduce the dollar on which business now rests, to the value of fifty-two or fifty-three cents. The only financial disturbance caused by the demonetization of silver exists in the imaginations of the bimetallist philosophers.

The resolution of the Saratoga platform which calls for the retirement and cancellation of the greenbacks, while commendable in itself, will not cure the mischief which has been done by telling the silverites that they are all right except as to the particular method they have adopted for carrying out their views.

THE MENACE TO RAILROADS.

THERE is probably not a railroad manager in the United States who is not lying awake o' nights thinking of the results of the free coinage of silver to him and his property and his employees. If he has any gold bonds outstanding (and nearly every one has them), the first question is how he is to get gold to pay his interest if the standard money of the country is silver. No railroad can live and maintain solvency if its receipts are in the form of silver and its payments are made in gold. The silver dollar is worth somewhere between 50 and 60 cents, varying like a shuttlecock, but not likely to rise above 60 cents for any considerable time. A railroad which has a million dollars of gold interest to pay must expend nearly 2,000,000 of silver dollars in order to meet this single liability. It is very easy to say, "Raise your rates; charge the public $2 freight where you now charge $1; make them pay 4 cents per mile for riding on the cars instead of 2." The thing cannot be done, or, if done at all, only at the end of a protracted turmoil and struggle during which bankruptcy will overtake every road so situated.

This is not all. The gold-interest problem is only a part, and not the largest part, of the green cloud in the railroad horizon premonitory of a cyclone. The cost of labor and materials will rise in proportion to the fall in the value of the money. It must be so because that is the law of money. Men cannot do the same amount of work for a silver dollar that they can for a gold dollar, because it is not worth so much. It will not buy so much. It will not bring in the same amount of flour, meat, clothing, and other commodities. Consequently the railroad employees and material men must have more dollars than they get now for a given amount of labor and supplies. Iron, lumber, coal, oil, and everything else will cost more. But where is the money to come from? The people who are served by the railroads must pay it. But they will resist any advance as long as they can, and, while they are resisting, the roads will be unable to pay the increased wages and prices demanded. The President of the Atchison Road pictures the situation in its true colors, thus;

> "There is not a Western railway, with a few exceptions, that does not pay out 70 per cent. of its gross receipts for labor and supplies. The exceptions pay out 60 per cent. The margin of profit for capital is very small. If, as the free-silver advocates themselves claim, free silver will raise the price of products and labor, the railways will have to raise their charges accordingly. Furthermore, if we are to receive 50 cents in place of $1, the railways will be driven into confusion and bankruptcy. The proposal is to revolutionize the money basis in the face of the world. If it carries, it will be followed instantly by a widespread panic and havoc, blacker and more disastrous than any business calamity that ever swept America. The situation which now confronts railway managers and the managers of great investments and capital is that of awaiting the settlement of this tremendous question and the wiping out of the menace against their property and money."

What is true of the railroads is true of nearly all large business undertakings. Most of them have some debt. Most of them have been brought into existence by borrowing. They have obtained capital cheaply by promising to pay interest and principal in gold. They have borrowed gold under contracts to return gold. All such undertakings are exposed to the same hazard as the railroads. There is no difference between them except that the railroads are a little more in evidence by reason of the daily quotation of their securities in the newspapers. Coal mines, gas works, iron works, electrical companies, cotton and woollen mills, cities and States that have bonds outstanding, are in the same plight. As we write these lines an official circular comes to us from Utah asking proposals for $200,000 of "State of Utah *Gold* 4 per cent. twenty-year funding bonds, principal and interest payable in *United States gold coin*." Here's richness! The delegates of Utah to the St. Louis convention seceded from that body and left the Republican party because a gold-standard platform was adopted, and yet these very men must have taken part in passing the law authorizing this gold loan; or if they did not personally take part in it, must have approved it. The same may be said of their newspapers that are indulging in blackguardism against the gold-bugs and against Wall Street seven days in every week. They are all shocked at the issue of gold bonds by the United States. They insist that when the federal Government borrows money it shall pay the principal and interest in silver, or at least reserve the option to do so. Yet when their own State wants to borrow, they print the word gold in capital letters on the circulars which they send to the Wall Street sharks, and they never recognize the humor of the situation.

The main fact, however, is that every State and municipality that has gold

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bonds outstanding will have to increase its taxes if silver becomes the standard, unless it repudiates its debt. Repudiation would not be difficult under the circumstances, for a community or people that could authorize all debtors to cheat their creditors out of one-half of their private obligations would not hesitate long to apply the same principle to public obligations. There would be Tillmans and Altgelds in plenty to point the way. The only class of creditors of the States and cities who would be helpless would be the office-holders. Their expenses would rise like those of the railroad employees, but they could not strike for higher wages. They could no nothing but petition the Legislature for an increase of salary, and it would be a long time before they would get it. The employees of the federal Government would be in the same plight, for Uncle Sam must pay out the same kind of money that he takes in.

THE CANADIAN ELECTIONS.

For the second time only since confederation, the Canadian Liberals have carried a general election. Steadily beaten since 1878, they have now won not only a victory, which they were expected to do by a narrow margin, but a sweeping victory which leaves the Conservatives dazed. Even in the province of Quebec, where the Government candidates counted upon gaining six seats, the Liberals were almost everywhere successful. Mr. Wilfred Laurier will be the first French Canadian Premier the country has had, and is assured of a good majority in the House over all opposing factions.

The two great issues in the campaign which ended on June 23 were the school question, or the religious-school question, and the tariff. Of these the first was doubtless the more important, and cut most sharply through party lines. The controversy is an old one and has raged mainly about the schools in the province of Manitoba. That province entered the Dominion in 1870, and in 1871 established a system of schools such as exists in other Canadian provinces—that is to say, separate schools for Protestants and Catholics, under the supervision of a school board composed of two sections, one Catholic and one Protestant, each managing its own schools. So things went on till 1890, when the Protestants, having become largely in the majority through the influx of settlers, abolished the two-headed school board and practically withdrew all public money from the Catholic schools. An appeal was at once taken to the Governor-General in Council, as provided in the British North America act of 1867, and judgment was finally given in favor of the Roman Catholics in 1895. A remedial order was drawn up restoring to the Manitoba Catholics the right to a share in the legislative school grant. The Manitoba Legislature refused to act upon this order. Thereupon a bill was brought into Parliament to compel the Manitoba Protestant majority to give the Catholics their school money. This bill passed its second reading on the 20th of last March, by a vote of 112 to 94, but was killed by the famous obstruction in committee, after two successive sittings of 129 and 80 hours continuously.

In the appeal to the country the Conservatives made the Manitoba school bill their leading campaign cry. Sir Charles Tupper even carried the war into Manitoba itself, where he fairly told the electors that the bill would be forced down their throats if he won the day. But it was, of course, in the strong Catholic provinces that he expected to score his gains, and he had the influence of the higher clergy most outspokenly on his side, despite the fact that Mr. Wilfred Laurier is himself a Catholic. In the churches of Quebec and elsewhere Catholics were told from the altar that it was their religious duty to support the Conservatives, and one bishop denounced Laurier as no better than "a rationalistic Liberal" for having maintained that "a Catholic is not required to be a Catholic in public life." But it appears, from the issue, that thousands of even the priest-ridden French Canadians resented this interference and voted for the Liberals, while, of course, ultra-Protestants must have been detached in great numbers from the Conservative party so openly bidding for priestly support. From the event it is clear that this religious question, upon which the Conservatives counted so much, hurt them severely, both going and coming.

The other leading issue was tariff reform. Mr. Wilfred Laurier is a free-trader and a strong advocate of reciprocity with the United States, though he has frankly said in his speeches that the necessity of raising revenue by customs duties will prevent any radical reductions in the tariff for some time to come. All that he promises is a moderate readjustment of the tariff. But Sir Richard Cartwright, who will probably be finance minister in the new Liberal cabinet, is strongly in favor of unrestricted free trade, and he has been held up as a bogey-man by the Conservatives. The voters, however, do not appear to have been frightened. The truth is, the country has not been prosperous under protection, trade depression having persisted for some years. By the very logic of protection, therefore, which risks the whole case on prosperity, the electors were justified in turning towards free trade. It is somewhat puzzling to see a nation on one side of an imaginary line attributing all its ills to protection, and one on the other side to the lack of protection. But it is a comfort to reflect that there is One who knows all about it—McKinley, of course.

On the whole, accordingly, the result of the Canadian elections must be taken as an encouragement to the believers in popular government—which is, of course, the Q. E. D. of all elections. An overbearing priestcraft has been rebuked, fiscal follies and fallacies shown to have lost a part of their power, and one more pin thrust into Chamberlain's Imperial Zollverein. The Conservatives made much of this particular inflation of the Colonial Secretary's, giving the people to understand that Chamberlain was greatly interested in Sir Charles Tupper's success. So much the worse for Sir Charles then, said the people, and down went the Zollverein in Canada. As far as the result affects the United States, we should say it meant a more cordial policy in general on the part of the new Government, and in particular an excellent disposition to return to a generous treaty of reciprocity, such as the arrangement of 1854, which was repealed to mutual disadvantage and under a good deal of false pretence in 1866.

JAMESON COMMITTED.

London, June 16, 1896.

There are a number of men going about the streets here bearing large yellow placards to the effect that a picture entitled "Jameson's Last Stand," by R. Caton Woodville, R.A., is now on exhibition. This was probably painted at the height of the Jameson furore last January, for it is doubtful if laureates and academicians would find "Dr. Jim" a figure so entirely heroic since his commitment for trial yesterday at the close of the police magistrate's examination at Bow Street; but it would be a mistake to say that interest in the raiders has altogether abated, or that they are much less popular.

On June 11 the adjourned session of the examination of the men charged with a violation of the Foreign Enlistment Act by making a raid into a friendly state was brought on at the Bow Street Police Court, before as brilliant and interested an audience as can be imagined. The "great crowds" at previous sessions must have stood outside the gates, for at this session no more could have been accommodated within. To the American mind, Bow Street suggests something vaguely disagreeable and disreputable, like the Old Bailey or the Tombs, yet it is by no means such a bad street; and as the Covent Garden Opera-house stands just across the way from the police court, there was a curious air of propriety about the elaborate toilets that filled the commonplace little room where real dramas were acted in the light of day.

The ostensible purpose of the examinations was to ascertain whether or not the defendants had committed an offence for which they should stand trial. Whatever the Government's original intention with regard to the matter may have been, the necessities of the situation have compelled it to a strenuous and successful effort to bring the conspirators to trial; so the many adjournments of the case (which the Opposition called dilatory tactics) now seem quite justified. As this proceeding must inevitably affect the South African question, a slight sketch of it and of the principal figures in it is perhaps worthy of record.

The court-room at Bow Street is small, somewhat dingy, but clean. Across one side of it runs the bench, which is raised above the

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level of the floor, railed off from it, with the Judge's desk in the centre. So many chairs and benches were filled with ladies and gentlemen, to his right and left, that both Judge and bar lost something of their usual imposing appearance, especially as both were without wigs and gowns on this occasion. The fifteen defendants filled the whole of the first of the floor benches usually allotted to spectators, but everywhere else the interested and the curious were packed in—ladies and gentlemen in about equal numbers, seated and standing—as many as the bench, the floor, and the aisles could comfortably accommodate; and the little room had more the appearance of some academic feast-day than of a court of justice. The visitors were no better dressed than most of the defendants, to whom they nodded and smiled as lightly as if the whole affair were a splendid joke. With one exception the defendants also seemed to share the same delusion. That exception was Jameson himself, who came, first of the fifteen, into the room, with a grave face, which showed a full appreciation of the seriousness of the case, and which never lightened for a moment. The others—most of them typical English gentlemen of the fashionable set—took the matter very jauntily; and, sitting there in their long frock-coats, smooth-cheeked and well-groomed, seemed very unlikely persons to have gone rough-riding through a strange country in such a Quixotic adventure as they ended at Doornkop last January.

Jameson has an interesting and by no means a bad face, though not as strong as one would expect. His eyes are fine—wide apart and rather pathetic—and he has a good big forehead, perhaps a little exaggerated by baldness, but his mouth and chin do not look unusually positive. He wears a brown moustache, trimmed close, and in age appears to be about forty. His eye is clear and his color good, but fatigue and care were evident from his whole appearance and demeanor. In physique he is thickset and short—quite the least imposing by far of the party; but he has the only intellectual face among them. Henry Frederick White, one of the leaders, is the handsomest of them, a tall, military man, with an air of good breeding and distinction. The Hon. Robert White, the "Bobby" of the dispatches, is quite vacant-looking, as is also Capt. Coventry. Col. Grey is also handsome, in a way, but heavy; Sir John Willoughby looks intelligent enough, in all conscience, but his face is cynical and repellent.

The Crown was represented by the Attorney-General, Sir Richard Webster, large of stature, deep of voice, and impressive. A legion of barristers appeared for the defence, notably Sir Edward Clarke, Sir Frank Lockwood, and Mr. Gill. The proceedings were very slow, for the depositions of the witnesses were taken by the clerk in narrative form in longhand, to be sworn to and signed then and there; and the delay between question and answer or question and question would have made the most exciting story tame. Nevertheless, some of the first day's stories were exciting in spite of this, particularly the tale of a boyish Dutch lieutenant, who had been under arrest by Jameson's column and had afterwards taken part in the first skirmish near Krügersdorp, all of which he described simply and with much dignity. They met him on patrol duty, took his horse away, and disarmed him, and he asked them why they did, "when no war had been declared or anything"; he refused to tell them how many men he had, saying "he did not see how they could expect him to answer such a question." They finally gave his horse back, and left him behind them on a two hours' parole to stay where he was, at the close of which he joined the Boer forces and reached his battery at Krügersdorp ahead of them, where, he said, "some of them were killed and we beat them off."

After him came two or three Dutch officials, who produced the two large tin boxes, one black, one yellow, and the now famous leather portfolio, stamped "L. S. J."—the Pandora's box which Oom Paul opened as a gift of plagues for all his enemies. These were found on the field at Doornkop, the fustian conspirators having left them for the heroes of the piece to discover, as naïvely as if they had been the villains of an ordinary British melodrama. The proof as to the identity of boxes and contents was slow but interesting; and as paper after paper was put in evidence—letters to "dear Bobby" and others, dated in early November and December, full of arrangements for an early start; of solicitude for sound horses, mules, and plenty of ammunition; of fears about Foley's "blabbing" and the premature disclosure of the plan; of the necessity for "drilling all the men inside out"—the little conspirators looked exceedingly foolish, and their leader put his hands over his crimson face and hid it for a long time. The spectators, however, heard the testimony as complacently as if it were all of a highly honorable nature, and seemed quite to miss the point of it. The magistrate had nothing to do, at the close of testimony so convincing and carefully submitted, but to hold the six leaders for trial, under £2,000 bail each, and to discharge their dupes. Jameson, with a generosity that is said to be characteristic of him, and accounts in part for the devotion he is capable of arousing, offered by counsel to be held alone responsible; but the evidence was so damaging against the Whites, Willoughby, Coventry, and Grey, that the offer could not avail them.

The defence outlined by Sir Edward Clarke is distinctly a thin one—that the expedition started from Pitsani, outside British jurisdiction; and that, though it was led by an officer in the British service, and recruited and armed on British soil, its place of final departure converts it into a sort of piratical raid from no-man's land, which should have been punished, if at all, by the Boers; and that it is not an offence of which the British courts are cognizant. No defence on the merits is longer possible; and even the excuse of chivalry and Hotspur thoughtlessness has been perforce abandoned.

The Government appear to be acting in good faith, and so far to have proceeded with ability. The future alone can tell what they will do in the ensuing criminal trials, and what effect Jameson's acquittal or conviction will have on the South African situation. Meanwhile, the newspapers here grumble at Krüger, and even at the necessity of going further with Jameson, for whom they are now clamoring for a "fair trial." The defects in the Boer Government are for ever harped on, and the iniquity of the conspiracy against that Government quite glossed over. One finds daily defences of Cecil Rhodes, open or covert, in the papers; and the street posters show how venial the people consider "Dr. Jim's" offence. The truth is, that South Africa holds the imagination of England, just now, as a sort of El Dorado, which must not be given up to Dutchmen or negroes. The progress of the Matabele war is proclaimed with trumpets; whole pages of the papers are given up to advertisements of mining ventures and Cape investment companies; a popular burlesque takes a head waiter turned millionaire at the Rand for its hero; and Mr. Barney Barnato—who, they say, was once a circus-clown—is now giving a touch of realism to all these fables about the wealth of the Cape by erecting a very ostentatious house facing the Park. What all this will end in, no one knows; but the Jameson affair, a misdemeanor under the act, is at any rate no ordinary misdemeanor. It is already an historical one, and its end is not yet.

L. McK. G.

THE TRIUMPHS OF LEO XIII.

ITALY, June 10, 1896.

WHEN the present Pope (who, as chamberlain after Antonelli's death, exercised supreme authority during the conclave) was the virtual head of the anti-Jesuit party, which, without formally renouncing the temporal power of the papacy, yet saw the wisdom of finding some *modus vivendi* with the civil authorities of the new kingdom of Italy, recognized as such by all European powers, it was confidently believed that, if elected Pope, he would carry out the intentions of his party. That he intended to do so is certain, but the Jesuits, the *Intransigenti*, prevailed against him and the moderate party, reinforcing the *non-possumus* of Pio Nono: and the Vatican, as far as Italy was concerned, was regarded as an enemy to be watched incessantly—not to be specially feared; one whose hostility was decidedly preferable to its friendship. There is no country in the world where religious indifference amounts to the total oblivion of any religious question as in Italy. During more than forty years' residence and intimacy with men of thought and intellect, I have never heard one purely religious discussion, and should not know to whom to address the question, "What are the central doctrines of the Trinity and the Incarnation?"—which, according to Mr. Gladstone, ninety-nine professing Christians out of a hundred believe in. What thoughtful, patriotic Italians dreaded was the dominion which, in exchange for a cessation of hostilities towards the royal authorities, would be given to the Church over education. Eighteen years have passed since Cardinal Pecci assumed the tiara, and ostensibly he has made no progress in this direction. Although the proclamation of universal, gratuitous, compulsory lay education has become a dead-letter in Italy, we have not yet heard that instruction in the catechism and attendance at mass are compulsory in State schools. Nevertheless, the Pope's inordinate ambition, tenacity of purpose, persevering energy, vast learning, knowledge of human nature, and tact in dealing with it, have not been spent in vain: he is at the present moment the person most talked of, most looked up to in Europe. This fact, without awakening any really religious emotion or reviving controversial discussions, is one which appeals to that side of the Italian character which is neither its noblest nor its highest—to national vanity.

For some time past, all religious ceremonials have been revived throughout the kingdom. Though not expressly abolished by the law of 1847, religious processions had fallen into total disuse. Prefects were allowed to forbid them if disturbance of the public peace was likely to follow, and they did forbid them; for in the days when the people believed that Italian unity would give them a roof over their

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heads, clothes to their backs, and at least one good meal a day, priests, monks, sacristans, all the confraternity in short, were jeered at and even hissed. I remember, just fourteen years ago, on the very green opposite, a stand-up fight between the populace and the processionists who, for the first time after sixteen years, ventured on a renewal of the ceremony of transporting the Madonna from her own church to the place where she first appeared. In this fray the cross of a valuable antique image of Christ was injured and broken. Now, on this last 4th of June, in the smallest village hamlet as in the largest city of the peninsula, the Corpus Domini procession paraded the streets in all its former grandeur. Even Bologna, the last stronghold of the opposition, celebrated it with extraordinary splendor, and in Rome, for the first time since Italy took possession of her capital, the Corpus Domini was accompanied in its triumphal procession by the entire populace. Italy, exclaims the *Tribuna*, in a bitterly sarcastic article, is transformed into a cathedral: prostrate yourselves, Freemasons, free-thinkers, misguided patriots, kings, soldiers, ministers of Italy; the Church is triumphant.

Say the optimists: This means nothing but that our people have an unappeasable appetite for feasts and festivals and spectacles of every kind. This is true, but once they believed that liberty would add some enjoyments to their life. Now, finding that the theatres, on which millions of the public money has been expended, and which are maintained at public cost, hold no gratuitous places for them—nay, that often, as in the Politeamo of Palermo, the lowest price for sitting-room is five francs—they take their diversions where they cost them nothing. Leo XIII, therefore, was wise in his generation when he ordered all the minor and major Church ceremonies to be celebrated throughout the land as in the days of yore, reëstablishing rigorous religious ceremonial at the Vatican court. Wiser still was his practical following up of his encyclical on the social question by enjoining on all the confraternities, the Catholic associations and clubs (*circoli*), the formation of mutual-aid societies, whose members, on contributing a very small monthly sum, are assisted in sickness and convalescence, of rural banks where the interest is not usurious, where loans are not granted to favorites, whose cashiers do not decamp with the funds. By these spectacular and mundane methods the Church is attracting the people back to its ample bosom. On the other hand, the terror inspired in all the property-possessing classes by the spread of theoretical socialism and the practical organization of the "masses" by the leaders, has engendered in the authorities and in the "classes" a strong conviction of the necessity of finding a rallying-point whereon to take their stand and organize their forces for defence against the encroaching multitudes. You will remember Crispi's speech at Naples, in which, altering Mazzini's famous formula of "God and the People," he proclaimed the necessity of uniting with God and the King for the salvation of the country.

Not only the Jesuits, but the entire Catholic Church, and, during his reign, Leo XIII., have waged emphatic warfare against the Masonic order. The Pope's encyclical of 1892 was one of the fiercest on record—and for good reason. For many years previous to 1860 the Freemasons, owing here to persecution and there to indifference, had become inert or acted in entirely private groups, of which the most important existed in Sicily and Naples. There were lodges in Calabria, in the Abruzzi, in Emilia, in Leghorn, in Liguria, in Piedmont, Turin and Venetian Lombardy; and in Rome existed, in strictest secrecy, the Fabio Massimo Lodge. Their object was chiefly political, the overthrow of existing governments; but they were distinct one from the other, and had no common action. After the liberation of Naples and Sicily, the Dante Alighieri Lodge of Turin, to which most of the members of the old parliamentary Left belonged, set on foot a unitarian movement, founding the first Italian Great Eastern (Grand Oriente), which was accepted and recognized by most of the Italian lodges at Florence in 1864. The supreme council of the thirty-three, in Palermo, refused to acknowledge Masonic unity until Rome should be proclaimed the capital of united Italy, and the Supreme Council of the Thirty-three of Turin also retained its separate authority and was the lodge chiefly recognized by the Masons of other countries. After 1870, owing chiefly to the exertions of the old triumvir of Tuscany (then Senator Mazzoni), and of Frederic Campanella, who, with Aurelio Saffi, was Mazzini's chief continuator, a constituent Masonic assembly was held in Rome in 1862. Most of the lodges adhered, Turin and Palermo still holding aloof, the Thirty-three of Turin insisting on its supremacy as the sole recognized authority of the Masons who held the Scottish rite; but the Great Eastern, established in Rome, rallied to it the most numerous adherents. On the death of Petroni, who succeeded Mazzoni, they elected, as Grand Master of the Order, Adriano Lemmi, who, by the great ascendancy he had acquired through his life of patriotic exertion and his immense expenditure of his honestly earned wealth in patriotic and benevolent purposes, succeeded in procuring the fusion of all the lodges, even of the Supreme Council of Turin.

The Assembly presided over by Aurelio Saffi established a sole supreme council of the thirty-three, with its seat in Rome. Lemmi, who remained Grand Master of the Great Eastern in Italy and chief of the Scottish rite, having established the central lodge in the magnificent apartments in the Borghese Palace in Rome, made a tour of all the Italian lodges, delivering really magnificent speeches, in all of which Mazzini's doctrines were enunciated and enforced (Garibaldi and Mazzini were both Freemasons), the moral preached being that all the efforts of martyrs and heroes would be in vain unless the whole Italian people, redeemed from misery, ignorance, superstition, and crime, should be made partakers of the benefits of unity and liberty. The Vatican was pointed to as the one enemy of Italian autonomy, of scientific, intellectual, and moral progress everywhere; hence the renewed thunders of the Vatican, and, as all the prominent Liberals of Italy were or became Freemasons, the Conservatives (who are mostly professing Catholics) rallied to the Opposition for a long time, covertly and silently. As this great Masonic organization was and is mainly political, though its vast funds are applied to secular education, to benevolent schemes, and to the direct assistance of needy and unfortunate brethren at home and abroad, not only did the Conservatives dread it, but parties, cliques, and ambitious individuals viewed it with increasing jealousy. A violent attack, founded on an old, disproved calumny, was made on the Grand Master by the press, and even brought into the House of Commons. Adriano Lemmi, after laying before the Grand Council of the order every fact and document relating to his life and action, resigned. The members of this order, including Carducci, Rizzoli, Ceneri (the first jurisconsult in Italy), and other notabilities, after minute examination and mature discussion, declared that there was not a flaw to be found, and entreated him to withdraw his resignation. He, however, in a letter made public last year, declared that it had never been his intention, once the discipline, finance, and organization of the Masonic forces were established on a broad basis, to retain in his own hands the double office of Grand Master of the Great Eastern and that of Grand Moderator of the Scottish rite; that to the latter he intended henceforward to dedicate his chief energy, and they must decide upon his successor.

Glad tidings of great joy were these to the opponents of Freemasonry, who shrewdly guessed that it would be difficult to find any other man who would devote such exceptional energy and such wealth to the support of the association. As soon, therefore, as Lemmi's successor, Ernest Nathan, a staunch Mazzinian, was elected, the question of demolishing the Masonic society on the plea that it was a secret one, was brought before the House of Commons and the Senate. To the anti-Masons in the House Rudini replied that it was his intention to take careful but decisive steps against all secret and subversive associations ("Especially against us," said the Socialists). In the Upper House Senator Rossi took up the cudgels, observing that societies exist whose aims and members are unknown to the public, which give their united support to ministers who are members of their association, and make equal opposition to those who are not. These were clever tactics, as the Masons were (up to the banking scandals certainly) Crispinos, to a man, nor has their support of Rudini been much to count on—not because he is not a member of the confraternity, but because he is a Conservative. Parenso, a Liberal Senator and one of the first and staunchest opponents of the African folly, agreed with Rossi as to the uselessness and possible harm of secret societies, but said that if they were to be extirpated, a just and logical Government must commence with the most widespread and deleterious, that of the Jesuits. Rudini repeated the declarations made in the House; he thought that the Freemasons ought to become a public association, that no secret societies ought to exist, that the moment had not come when special provisions should be made, but that if necessity and an opportune moment should occur, the Government would not shrink from taking the necessary steps.

The publication of Mr. Gladstone's letter concerning Anglican orders, announced in most of the papers, is regarded as another great triumph of the reigning pontiff, although considerable confusion prevails as to what is meant by the validity of Anglican orders. One paper gravely informs us that, in the expectation of a speedy return of the Anglican churches to the bosom of Holy Mother Church, the Pope is anxious to facilitate the return of the prodigals by not insisting on their reordination. The story of the negotiations may be briefly summed up. About a year since a book maintaining the validity of Anglican orders was laid before the Pope. It showed great erudition and vigor. The Pope ordered the question to be studied with a view to decreeing the validity of the ordinations. The English Catholic bishops at once protested, and brought to the Pope's notice the fact that the book, written by the Jesuit Berroyer,

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had been condemned by the highest authorities and consigned to the Index. Cardinal Vaughan went deep into the matter, and sent the theologians Dr. Moyes, Dr. Gayquet, and Father David to Rome to inform the Pope that the decision of the English Catholic clergy was final—nay, that many of the English Romanists would be inclined to abjure allegiance should he recognize the Anglican orders. The Pope, who was decidedly compromised by his expressed approval of Berroyer's book, submitted the question to the Holy Office, and the cardinals of this congregation also decided against the validity, as did Cardinal Galimberti, who had so much influence with the Pope until his recent death. Not choosing to publish with his sanction the decree of the Holy Office, the Pope took the whole question into his own hands, rather to avoid than to reach a decision, and it is the general opinion at Rome that the matter will be allowed gradually to drop. When we remember how firmly Archdeacon Manning believed in the validity, held that he was already a priest, and yet was compelled to admit that in the eyes of the real Church he had only been a simple layman, we can understand the sweeping condemnation of Cardinal Vaughan, and, while comprehending the extreme anxiety of the high Anglicans for a recognition by Rome of the validity of Anglican orders, we doubt their satisfaction being shared by the large body of Anglican or Dissenting Protestants. These, while anxious to strengthen the forces of faith and the Church against "secularists and Unitarians," as Hugh Cecil put it in his bitterly sectarian speech on the Education bill, are not yet clearly prepared to approve steps which are certainly an advance towards a reunion with Rome. The triumph scored for the Pope lies in the cordial sentiments of "reverence, gratitude, and high appreciation" expressed in Mr. Gladstone's letter, which has been transmitted to Cardinal Rampolla, the Pope's *intransigente* secretary of state.

A far more important triumph will be obtained if his Holiness succeeds in inducing Menelik to liberate and restore the Italian prisoners detained in Shoa. The *Osservatore Romano* of the second inst. announced the despatch of a letter from the Pope to the Negus, urging the release of the prisoner. To-day's papers affirm that Menelik has already consigned them to Makonnen, who will send them to Zeila, where they will be embarked on English vessels sent to Massowah and thence to Italy. Should the prisoners be restored to their country and their homes, through the intervention of Leo XIII., a sense of the power and might of the Church superior to that of the civil arm will mingle in a very large degree with the joy and gratitude with which the unfortunate victims of the insane African policy will be welcomed by their families and their countrymen. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

MINNESOTA AND SOUND MONEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the strong sentiment in Minnesota in favor of sound money there are some facts which are encouraging. Minnesota has had a campaign of education on the subject of sound finance, and the results show.

In 1858 the State, by direct vote of the people, issued railroad bonds to the amount of $2,275,000. The bonds were to be paid to the company at $10,000 per mile, one-half for grading and one-half for completed track. The company, instead of straightforward work, picked out easy places and left all the difficult ones, so that nothing of real value was done, and no consecutive miles of road were finished when they failed, leaving the State nothing to show for its more than two million dollars indebtedness. Times were very hard, the population was small, and for some years nothing could be done. Then the war came on, and Minnesota did her full share for the country besides quelling an Indian outbreak within the State.

By the time prosperity had returned, a new population had come in—people who knew nothing about these old bonds except that they represented a railroad swindle. The interest which, by agreement, the railroad company was to take care of, accumulated until in 1881 the whole amount, principal and interest, was $8,400,000. Demagogues were fond of denouncing the idea that the State was responsible for these bonds, and hardly one man in one hundred could be found who would consent to their redemption, much less advocate it. But a champion came who was honest and fearless and persistent, and the sound financial sentiment of Minnesota to-day is his reward.

When Gov. John S. Pillsbury, in his first message in 1876, advocated the payment of the bonds, to use his own words, "everybody looked black." This first term was the time of the grasshopper plague. Gov. Pillsbury, by his personal kindness and his efficient aid, travelling throughout the State to get information and give assistance, advocating plans for relief and carrying out schemes for prevention, won the hearts of the people. But while he was administering to their necessities, he never lost an opportunity to urge them not to disgrace the State by dishonesty. His business ability, which rescued the University and saved the State large sums in other ways, won him esteem, and he was reëlected in spite of his persistent advocacy of the payment of the bonds. But, even in his second term, a measure looking towards payment was overwhelmingly defeated. The stanchest friends of the measure, ex-Govs. Sibley and Marshall and Mr. Horace Thompson—men who felt that they would move out of the State if its credit was dishonored—were now almost ready to give up. Senator Windom and Senator McMillan were openly taunted with representing a repudiating State. But Gov. Pillsbury resolved to fight it out, and strong friends rallied round him. His personal popularity was thrown into the scale, and had great weight, but still a large majority of the people regarded the bonds as "a steal," and could not see that the honor of the State was at stake, no matter how unjust had been the dealings of the railroad company.

At last the Legislature was induced to authorize a commission part of whose duty it was to pronounce on the legality of the bonds. Perhaps the most discouraging thing in the whole struggle was the fact that one after another of the district judges, fearing the unpopularity of a decision they knew they must render, declined to serve on this commission. But at last five honest judges were found. Before they could render a decision, the opponents of payment brought action to prevent the reference to the commission. This threw the whole question into the Supreme Court, and a straight-out decision was rendered in favor of the validity of the bonds. In the meantime the holders of the bonds, who knew very well that the State had reason to complain of the value it had received, offered to accept one-half the amount in new bonds.

Now came the final tug of war. Mr. Joseph Wheelock, editor of the St. Paul *Pioneer Press*, then, as now, honest to the core, was, throughout the whole struggle, a tower of strength, and he was ably supported by the Minneapolis *Tribune* and by nearly all the papers of the two cities. They brought forward every argument that could affect character or interest, and at last, by herculean effort on the part of all the friends of redemption, the Legislature voted to issue the new bonds. This was in the fall of 1881, just before the maturing of the old paper. Gov. Pillsbury, who had now served his third term and declined another, had to work early and late to get the bonds signed before the expiration of his term, for he was succeeded by a man who was not in sympathy with the payment. So, by the skin of the teeth, the measure was carried through. But the glory of it, the prosperity and high financial standing which it gave the State, could be appreciated by all; and that is why Minnesota is sound on the money question to-day. A. L.

Minneapolis, June 24, 1896.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following passage, which I have just come across in Chateaubriand's 'Génie du Christianisme' (vol. ii., p. 271), would seem to indicate that the idea of an international court of arbitration is not new:

"S'il existait, au milieu de l'Europe, un tribunal qui jugeât, au nom de Dieu, les nations et les monarques, et qui prévînt les guerres et les révolutions, ce tribunal serait le chef-d'œuvre de la politique et le dernier degré de la perfection sociale."

Yours truly, L. Oscar Kuhns.

Wesleyan University,
Middletown, Conn., June 26, 1896.

JOHN SPARKS, OF PIKE'S EXPEDITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In January, 1807, when Capt. Z. M. Pike was struggling to cross the Sangre de Cristo Mountains of present Colorado, several of his party were frost-bitten. Two of them, John Sparks and Thomas Dougherty, were abandoned with frozen feet January 22, as it was impossible for them to proceed further. Pike afterward received, from one or both of these men, some of the small bones of the feet which had come away with the sphacelus that had set in. These men were rescued eventually, but never rejoined him in his tour through Mexico, and at the close of his book remain unaccounted for, together with five or six others left behind in Mexico. It has always been supposed, no doubt correctly, that nearly or quite all of them regained the United States; but I have hitherto seen nothing definite upon the subject, excepting that the *Nation's* reviewer of my edition of Pike's 'Travels' mentions the finding of the name of one of them on rolls of the War Department subsequent to 1807. But now John Sparks turns up, thoroughly identified by name, by his stumpy feet, and by local tradition of his connection with Pike's expedition. This information is given me in several letters from

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Mr. A. H. Wilcox, of C. P. Wilcox & Co., lumber merchants, Frazee, Minn.

In 1854 Mr. Wilcox went to Licking County, Ohio, and soon became county surveyor. The name of "old John Sparks" was then a household word there. Mrs. Wilcox, now a woman of sixty-five years of age, knew him well. She first saw him when she was a child about eight years old, and had been sent to watch a gap in a fence through which hay was being hauled out, to keep the cattle from straying in. She was frightened at his peculiar dress and appearance as he came hobbling along, but was reassured by being told that that was "only old John Sparks," who would hurt nobody. She remembers him as a man of medium height, slender and wiry, with remarkably piercing eyes, who managed to get along as well as anybody, though both his feet were partly gone; and perfectly recalls the stories that were rife of his adventures with Pike, as well as the general complaint in the neighborhood that he killed more than his share of turkeys and pigeons, in spite of his crippled condition. He was a Virginian by birth, and at the time of which I am speaking was a pensioner; he used to go regularly to Newark, the county seat, to draw his pension, and in passing would stop over night at her house (her people being also Virginians), but could never be persuaded to go to bed, as he preferred to roll up in a blanket on the porch. When the Mexican war broke out, he was on hand to enlist, but was rejected on account of age and the partial loss of his feet. He was quite uneducated, and, like many others of his class, was fond of indulging in flights of rhetoric. On the completion of the Sandusky and Newark Railroad, before it was open to the public, he was given a free ride on the locomotive, and never afterward tired of describing this trip on an "enginuity," which had caused in him a settled conviction that the works of "nacher" were wonderful, but the works of art "wonderfuller." Mrs. Wilcox remembers his military funeral, as he was buried with the honors of war, and the passing by of the squad of soldiers in uniform, with drum and fife, impressed her mind. This was *circa* 1850, when he was about seventy years of age.

ELLIOTT COUES.

1726 N STREET, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Notes.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO. have just issued, in advance of completion of Prof. J. B. Thayer's 'Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at Common Law,' Part i., which deals with the "Development of Trial by Jury."

Edward Arnold's announcements for speedy publication include 'The Cruise of the Ant arctica: A Voyage to the South Polar Regions in 1895,' by H. J. Bull, and 'Persia Revisited (1895),' by Gen. Sir Thomas Edward Gordon, K.C.I.E., etc.—both works provided with illustrations and maps.

A book on Japan, by W. E. Curtis; 'The Thlinkets of Southeastern Alaska,' by Francis Knapp and Reta Louise Child; and (in the fall) 'A College Year-book,' are forthcoming publications of Stone & Kimball.

D. Appleton & Co. will bring out 'Familiar Trees and their Leaves,' by F. Schuyler Matthews,' with illustrations, and an American historical romance, 'Sir Mark: A Tale of the First Capital,' by Miss Anne Robeson Brown.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'Glaciers of North America,' by Prof. Israel C. Russell of the University of Michigan.

Last year we had a reprint in four handy volumes of Thomas Shelton's translation of 'Don Quixote,' prompted by Mr. Justin Huntly McCarthy, and now Mr. James Fitzmaurice-Kelly has taken it in hand for Mr. David Nutt's superb series of Tudor Translations, and half the work is before us, namely, volumes i. and ii. Apart from typography, the two editions differ in the spelling, which is modernized in Mr. McCarthy's; but Mr. Fitzmaurice-Kelly implies that the sources are different also, and avers that he now reprints "for the first time from the excessively rare edition of 1612," the *editio princeps*. Such random comparison as we have made would point to identity, but we will not dispute the present editor, who in a liberal Introduction sketches the life of Cervantes, tells what is known of Shelton and of the circumstances of his version, confirms the claim of the Brussels edition of 1607 to be the one used by Shelton, and points out some of his errors of haste or ignorance along with instances of his felicity in truly rendering the original. Everybody will prize Shelton in his new dress. On the first page of volume ii. a significant *no* has been dropped before *lesse* in the eleventh line of the first paragraph.

With the eighth volume Mr. Henry B. Wheatley finishes the editing of 'The Diary of Samuel Pepys' proper (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan), with its pathetic ending in view of the condition of the diarist's eyes, of which he could never "command the pleasure." No other portion of the work more perfectly reveals the man in his private capacity, or presents more curious material for reflection to the moralist. Mr. Wheatley has now in hand a ninth volume, embracing an Introduction; a paper on the London of Pepys's time; corrections of some of the notes; a corrected pedigree; appendixes; and an elaborate index. He also intimates that he may annotate hereafter Pepys's numerous letters. The present volume contains portraits of Monk and of Charles II.

The bound volume of the *Century* from November to April last is not easy to characterize in a few words; but as the sheets of our topographic atlases are designated by some larger town in the field, this volume might be fixed *in time* by Prof. Bryce's article on the "Armenian Question," or by Prof. Allan Marquand's illustrated paper on "The Old Olympic Games" in connection with an editorial article on the New. To be remarked also are J. G. Vibert's poetic little autobiography and expanded picture-labels for the baker's-dozen of his paintings here engraved; a story by Kipling; "A Midsummer Night," by Benjamin Kidd, who essays the rôle of Thoreau and his imitators. The poetry of the volume is signed by many well-known names, and reaches its high-water mark, we think, in Mr. Woodberry's lines to his brother-professor Jackson. But, altogether, in the case of this magazine as of its rivals nowadays, one echoes Miss Thomas's desire for "the era of rich verse again."

Mr. Hamilton, in 'Across an Ulster Bog' (Edward Arnold), gives us one of the stories of Irish life, truest to nature of the many we have read of late years. A character such as that of Mr. Duffin is, we trust, an anomaly in even the fiction relating to the Irish Church, and the culmination of the tragedy is too horrible. But the delineations of character, the conversations, the tender touches, the descriptions of scenery are admirable. The reader will not soon forget Ellen and her father, Miss McFadden, Mary Anne and her dogs. The narrative never drags; we are carried on irresistibly from opening to finish. This little book is especially interesting in that it depicts life among the poor of the Protestant population of Ulster. But why should these Irish sketches so uniformly be sombre or sad? Surely the sun shines in Ireland as elsewhere, and life there is not without its brightness, its joys, its successes.

An abridgment of Mr. H. S. Salt's 'Life of Thoreau' appears in the "Great Writers" edited by Eric Robertson and Frank T. Marzials (London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners). It is chiefly noticeable—apart from its readableness—on account of a Thoreau bibliography compiled by John P. Anderson of the British Museum. This extends to nine pages and more than two hundred titles—a sufficient proof of the interest of the subject. Mr. Salt's Life, which appeared, in England only, in a fuller form, six years ago, does not, so far as we perceive, throw any new light on Thoreau. Of course, as an admirer, he strongly objects to Lowell's view of his hero, and assures the reader that it is all a mistake to suppose that he imitated Emerson or was an egotist. If not an egotist, Mr. Salt should add a new word to the dictionary framed to describe the quality which leads a man to declare that, after living some thirty years on this planet, he has "yet to hear a word of valuable advice from his elders."

It is not only students of ecclesiastical history who will be benefited by Messrs. Gee and Hardy's 'Documents Illustrative of English Church History' (Macmillan Co.), but all who desire to follow the development of political life in England; for in the Middle Ages it is impossible to dissociate the sacred and the profane. The Statutes of Mortmain, of Provisors, and of *Præmunire* were acts of statesmanship exercising a wide influence on the community in general, and there were few measures of more importance in the stormy seventeenth century than the Solemn League and Covenant, the Five-Mile Act, the Test Act, the Bill of Rights, and the Toleration Act. The one hundred and twenty-four documents here printed are gathered from a wide range of publications, accessible as a whole to few scholars, and it is a real service to sound learning to collect and present them in a handy shape. Many students would have preferred them in the original language, but it is perhaps a prudent concession to the multitude to give them in translations.

Both the subject and treatment of Brightman's 'Liturgies, Eastern and Western,' of which volume i., containing the Eastern Liturgies, has just been issued (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), are too technical for detailed notice here, but acknowledgment is due to the author for the learning and thoroughness with which he has handled his complex theme. Even those not specialists can, however, find interest in the glossaries, where they will learn how many forms the Christian ritual can assume.

The exceptional number of periodic comets renders very acceptable the new and fourth edition of Mr. W. T. Lynn's 'Remarkable Comets' (London: Edward Stanford), it being the only popular monograph on these extraordinary bodies. Not only are periodic comets treated, but also those which may be considered remarkable either on account of their brilliant physical appearance, or because of any other circumstance respecting them. The scope of the work is almost purely histori-

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cal. The comets connected with the great meteoric displays are not omitted, nor those interesting comets seen on a single occasion only, during total eclipses of the sun—in 1882 in Egypt and in 1893 in Chili. It is somewhat singular, too, although the coincidence has not been remarked, that during two previous eclipses, also at eleven years' interval (1871 and 1860), comets are thought to have been depicted in the streamers of the corona. Mr. Lynn touches lightly on the subject of the composition of comets, and concludes his valuable treatise with a list of the dates in the order of the next returns of those periodic comets now expected to reappear. Only one or two of these are likely to exhibit extraordinary brilliancy, such as any comet from the interstellar spaces casually encountering the solar system may do. Small as the monograph is, its author has not neglected to provide a brief index.

A new 'Paris Directory' for 1896 comes to us from the compiler and publisher, Donald Downie, 61 Rue du Faubourg St.-Honoré. It is convenient for the pocket, and consists of a guide for sightseers, with directories of the diplomatic corps and of the residential section (Anglo-American chiefly), and much miscellaneous information concerning railroads, hotels, cafés, etc. The theatres are so exhibited (in perspective, not in plan) that one can readily choose his numbered seat

A recent issue of the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contains an account of a new enterprise of the leading Icelandic publisher, Sigurdur Kristjansson, who is now bringing out a cheap edition of all the Icelandic sagas. The latest issue from the Reykjavik press is a series of biographies of twenty leading Icelanders, in as many volumes, of which two have already appeared. The subjects of these first two volumes are the historian Jon Espolin and the poet Magnus Jonsson. The first work consists in part of an autobiography, originally written in Danish, translated and completed by Espolin's favorite pupil, Gisli Konradsson. An interesting feature is the introduction by Dr. Jon Thorkelsson, describing the life of the Icelandic students at the University of Copenhagen during the middle of the last century. From the biography it appears that Espolin was born in 1769. After spending three years in Denmark, where he made an unsuccessful attempt to obtain a permanent official position, he returned to Iceland and became Syssellmand or judge in various districts of the island. His most important literary work is 'Arbækur Islands,' in thirteen volumes, which treats of the history of Iceland from 1262 to 1832. Besides being the foremost Icelandic historian of modern times, Espolin may be regarded as the father of modern Icelandic prose. Of Magnus Jonsson's life and works less is known, as he lived in the sixteenth century. Unlike the majority of his fellow-poets, Jonsson was very wealthy, and, both on account of his politeness and his sumptuous retinue, he received the surname of the Magnificent. The book contains many contemporary documents which throw light on obscure points. In selecting the subjects for the later volumes, an attempt will be made to include prominent Icelanders whose lives are comparatively unknown to ordinary readers.

A year ago the Bunker Hill Monument Association held a memorial service in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the death of Col. William Prescott, who commanded in the battle. The orator of the occasion was Dr. William Everett, and his address has just been printed by the Association. It was when delivered an admirable peace tract, but its worth and timeliness have been vastly augmented by the Jingo mania under which we have labored for the past six months. Dr. Everett aptly defends the fitness of his invocation of international peace in a commemoration of Bunker Hill by instancing the call of Webster to be orator in 1843, at the dedication of the monument, just after he had concluded the unpopular extradition and boundary treaties with England. Dr. Everett's address was mainly historic, but the weight of it is in his fervid denunciation of war, which may fairly be called prophetic.

The seventh Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State proceeds with the miscellaneous index to the papers of these depositories, in which each item is a *précis* of the document recorded. We miss here a repetition of the personal name (or other rubric) at the head of a page when a number of items are "let in" with a dash. The bulk of the Bulletin, however, consists of "The Amendments to the Constitution and Ratifications by the Several States," forming Part iv. of the 'Documentary History of the Constitution, 1786–1870,' and concluding volume ii.

Capital topographic draftsmanship and a cultivated graphic style distinguish Mr. Bolton Coit Brown's paper, "A Trip about the Headwaters of the Middle and South Forks of King's River," in the eighth Sierra Club Bulletin (Academy of Science Building, San Francisco). There is a brief description, with photographic views, of an ascent of Mt. Le Conte, and the other articles convey practical information for the Sierra mountaineer.

In the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for June Mr. G. S. Fort gives an encouraging account of Rhodesia as a grazing and farming country. The want of machinery has prevented the development of the extensive gold areas which have been discovered, but he looks forward with confidence to the not distant time when its output of gold "will equal, if not exceed, that from the Rand." The success of this industry, however, depends wholly upon obtaining reliable native labor. In the Transvaal this is becoming increasingly difficult on account of the treatment of the natives by the Boers. "Marriage rights are not recognized. A native Christian woman properly married in the Cape Colony loses all conjugal rights, even the position of wife, as soon as she goes to reside in the Transvaal." "If more than five families settle on any piece of ground, they are broken up, practically, and handed over as slaves to the surrounding farmers." They are denied the ordinary rights of justice, and "are able to buy drink." Mr. A. Silva White, in a paper on aërial navigation, says that his ten years' experiences in ballooning show that "a flying-machine, heavier than the air and capable of withstanding the impact of the wind, is the only promising airship of the future." The great difficulty with Mr. Maxim's aëroplane, he thinks, lies in the fact that there is no "automatic mechanism which will enable it, *without altering its direction*," to pass from one air-current into another blowing in an opposite direction. Herr Andrée's project of reaching the North Pole by balloon is characterized "as foolhardy in the extreme, even suicidal."

The latest statistics of suicide in Germany from 1881 to 1894, published by Georg G. Mayr in the 'Allgemeiner Statistischer Archiv' (Tübingen: Laupp), show a startling increase in the number of self-murders during these thirteen years—from 8,987 to 11,112, an increase far greater than that of the population during the same period. It is also a curious fact that about four times as many men commit suicide as women. This disparity is due, in part at least, to the prevalence of suicide in the rank and file of the army as the result, in most cases, of maltreatment, but cannot be thus wholly accounted for. In England the proportion is somewhat less, being about three men to one woman. Evidently the female sex is either more patient in bearing those ills we have, or less resolute in flying to others that we know not of. The German is reputed to be phlegmatic, and is certainly less vivacious than the Frenchman, but is irascible, and easily loses his self-control on slight provocation. This is especially true of the lower classes. We may add that these statistics do not include unsuccessful attempts at suicide, but only actual deaths.

The Prussian Minister of Instruction has recently issued a circular stating the conditions on which women can be permitted to attend the lectures in the University of Berlin. In the first place they must obtain permission from the Minister of Instruction, and in their request for this official document must state what studies they intend to pursue and what lectures they wish to attend; they must also give an account of the nature and extent of their preparatory instruction and of their "personal relations," whatever that may mean. After these testimonials have been examined and the certificate of permission secured, they are to make application to the professors or tutors directly concerned. The rector's certificate must be renewed every semester, and should always be carried in the pocket, as it may be called for at any time. Only candidates for a degree are provided with the *Anmeldungsbuch*. These concessions to women indicate no little progress, although necessarily accompanied, in bureaucratic Prussia, with the unwinding of considerable red tape. On May 16 six women took the degree of M.D. at the University of Brussels, of whom five were English and one a German from Berlin, who passed her examination "with great distinction."

The coat of mail presented to Joan of Arc by Charles III. has been discovered in the Vatican. Before the death of the Maid of Orleans this coat of mail came into the possession of the Marquis de Courvel. Later it was brought to Rome, where it remained apparently unnoticed among other articles from the Middle Ages, until a descendant of the old marquis, after having obtained the necessary permission, conducted a search with the result noted above.

The Norwegian Storthing has passed a bill introduced by Emil Stang, the former Conservative prime minister, providing for the exercise of the right of suffrage by Norwegian sailors while on voyages. The measure, which was passed without regard to party feeling, has received the unqualified endorsement of the class it is intended to benefit.

—Historical students have awaited with interest the appearance of the complete compilation of the messages, proclamations, and inaugural addresses of the Presidents from 1789 to 1897, authorized by concurrent resolutions of Congress. The importance of this undertaking was recognized by the editor, Mr. James D. Richardson, Representative from Tennessee, who says: "The utmost effort has been made to make the compilation accurate

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and exhaustive." The first volume, 1789-1817, covers the first fourteen Congresses, whose papers are almost inaccessible. It shows that Mr. Richardson has been unfortunate in his assistants, and that the work is badly planned, inaccurate, and incomplete. The arrangement is roughly by sessions of Congress, and the papers are arranged chronologically for each session under four sub-headings, viz., Annual, Special, and Veto Messages, and Proclamations. To find a given document is very difficult, as the volume of six hundred pages is not indexed. Mr. Richardson announces that from this "complete compilation" he has omitted messages nominating persons to office, transmitting treaties, and transmitting reports of heads of departments, though in fact he has not rigidly followed this rule. Routine nominations and regular, formal reports might properly be neglected, but the omission of messages relating to treaties, and to special reports of the highest importance, renders the collection incomplete and unsatisfactory. Moreover, apart from these, some fifty important messages have been incomprehensibly omitted, for it is only necessary to follow page by page the journals of Congress to make a complete list of the messages. The following schedule illustrates the character and importance of the missing messages: September 26, 1789, Rhode Island desires to maintain friendly relations with the United States; June 14, 1790, Ratification of constitutional amendments by New Hampshire; June 14, 1790, Similar action by Maryland; December 30, 1793, Affairs with Spain; January 15 and 16, 1794, Relations with France, being the important messages on the Genet incident; January 22, 1794, Relations with Great Britain; March 12, 1794, Relations with Spain; March 25, 1794, American commerce; May 23 and June 4, 1794, Relations with Great Britain; January 12, 1795, On Indian troubles; February 29, 1796, Negotiations for a treaty with Spain; June 24, 1797, Relations with Algiers; January 29, 1798, Explanatory article of treaty with Great Britain; June 5 and June 18, 1798, Two important messages on relations with France; December 13, 1799, Relations with Tunis; February 17, 1800, Negotiations with Prussia; December 22, 1800, Confidential instructions to Envoy to France; December 6, 1804, On public buildings at Washington. To add to this list is needless.

—It is to be regretted that, as Mr. Richardson prints a letter of Louis XVI.'s on Jefferson's quitting the French court, and other extraneous matter relating to Jefferson's service in France, he did not print with the message of January 26, 1791, the letter from the French Assembly regarding its three days' mourning for Benjamin Franklin, as the title of the message conveys no idea of its subject-matter. The letter of Thomas Jefferson, President-elect, fixing the time and place for taking the oath of office, is published, but a similar letter of John Adams, laid before the Senate February 9, 1797, is omitted. It is to be hoped that Mr. Richardson will supply the missing messages by errata pages in volume ii. The unsystematic method of compilation is indicated by the failure to find Washington's proclamations of March 1, 1791, and March 1, 1795, until the volume was practically completed, so that they were printed on an errata sheet. Adams's proclamation of July 16, 1798, convening the Senate in extra session, is omitted, and the proclamation of July 16, 1803, is drawn from a newspaper, as are others, instead of being taken from official publications. Madison's proclamation of December 22, 1815, in connection with the very important commercial convention with Great Britain (see message of December 23), is also wanting. The excision of the treaty of Ghent from the proclamation of February 18, 1815, emasculates the document. The following messages of President Washington, which are printed as being addressed to the Senate alone, were addressed and sent to both houses of Congress, namely, August 7, August 10, September 16, and two of September 29, 1789. Mr. Richardson has incorporated the Declaration of Independence, Articles of Confederation, and the Constitution. The illustrations are typographically unsuited to the volume, and the biographies of the Presidents are unsatisfactory. Washington's grandfather, Lawrence, is said to have come to Virginia in 1657, whereas it was his great-grandfather, John Washington.

—In 1889 the Historical Society of Pennsylvania authorized the publication of the writings and correspondence of John Dickinson, "the penman of the Revolution." The first fruit of this undertaking was Stillé's 'Life and Times of Dickinson,' published in 1891, and reviewed at length in these columns at that time; we now have the first of three volumes of the 'Writings,' edited for the Society by Paul Leicester Ford. While the present collection does not claim absolute completeness, owing in part to the inability of the editor to obtain access to some of the Dickinson papers, and in part to his wise decision to exclude broadsides and newspaper pieces whose authorship could not be determined by other evidence than that of style, Mr. Ford assures us that such omissions as there may be are probably of "small moment," and "that the present edition includes all that is essential and important of Dickinson's works." As the only other collection of Dickinson's writings, that compiled by himself and published in 1801, contains less than a third of his works, and is no longer very accessible, the present edition is certain to make a valuable addition to available material for the study of the period which it covers. About a third of this first volume is taken up with the speeches and published writings of Dickinson, in connection with the agitation in Pennsylvania, in 1764, for a change in the government of the colony —a movement to which he was vehemently opposed, and against which he fought vigorously, but without success. Besides the great speech of May 24, we have Dickinson's protest against the petition drafted by Franklin and adopted by the Assembly, his scathing arraignment of Galloway in an elaborate reply to the latter's "pretended speech," his satirical "Receipt to make a Speech," and his protest against the appointment of Franklin as additional agent of the colony in England. To this last protest Franklin, though on the eve of his departure, felt bound to reply. Dickinson's rejoinder, closing his side of the controversy, is here printed for the first time.

—In the discussion aroused by the Stamp Act, the revenue acts, and other coercive measures Dickinson was a leading participant. He prepared the original draft of the resolutions adopted September 21, 1765, by the Pennsylvania Assembly, on the Stamp Act, and the "Declaration of Rights" and "Petition to the King" put forth by the Stamp Act Congress, besides publishing, later in the same year, a short "Address to Friends and Countrymen," and a pamphlet on the "Late Regulations respecting the British Colonies." A garbled version of the letter of the Barbados Committee of Correspondence in 1766, in which, by a misprint, or worse, the American colonies were charged with "rebellious" instead of "present" opposition, gave Dickinson an occasion for stating more in detail the position of the colonies, and of repelling accusations of disloyalty; while in 1768 appeared the most popular and influential of all his writings up to that time, the "Letters of a Farmer." In the heat of controversy and invective over the conduct of Great Britain, there had come to be, as Mr. Ford points out in his introductory note, much confusion of arguments, and not a little difficulty in attempting to reconcile perfect independence in taxation and perfect loyalty to the crown; and the "Letters of a Farmer," with their distinction between "external" and "internal" taxation, seemed to point to a common ground upon which all the patriot party could stand. The distinction was a shadowy one at best, but it undoubtedly served a temporary purpose and helped on the cause of union, upon whose necessity Dickinson repeatedly insisted. As the conflict approached, however, the essential limitations of Dickinson's mind, and in particular the curious hesitancy at critical moments which was later to turn public opinion against him, began to appear, and one is almost forced to believe that he failed to see the natural and inevitable outcome of the steps he was doing much to hasten. While urging uncompromising resistance to the aggressions of Great Britain, he insisted upon the adoption of peaceable measures only, declared again and again that the only hope of prosperity for the colonies lay in union with the mother country, and refused to consider the possibility of independence. So he threw himself into the movement for non-importation, and drew up, in 1771, a petition from the Pennsylvania Assembly to the King, while attacking the tea tax in two letters published in 1773, and in 1774 once more reviewing the controversy in four "Letters to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies."

—Mr. J. P. Gordy, professor of pedagogy at Athens, Ohio, has compiled 'A History of Political Parties in the United States,' in three volumes, of which volume one, covering the period from 1787 to 1809, has been issued at Athens by the Ohio Publishing Co., and, according to the preface, the book is written primarily for the teacher "who has not had the advantage of a higher education." The author says: "Until normal-school training is required of American teachers, a considerable part of their training must be obtained through private study." The book is therefore intended for the "thoughtful reader without much previous knowledge of the subject." Mr. Gordy wishes to concentrate the attention of the unqualified teacher, desirous of learning how to teach history, on "those phases of history which it is important for American citizens to know in order that they may perform their duties as American citizens intelligently." He also hopes that the book may commend itself to some of "that large class"—business as well as professional men—who are "beginning to realize that the present has its roots in the past." To judge by the present volume, the book may be read not only by beginners, but by almost anybody, with profit. It is written in a clear and simple style, is entirely non-partisan, and makes the causes of the early party struggles much

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clearer than many a more elaborate account. We have space but for two criticisms. The exact nature of the relations between the judiciary and the legislature might be made plainer. Again, the author seems to think (following Prof. Burgess's treatise on 'Political Science and Constitutional Law') that it is only the force of public opinion which, after a law has been, in a given case, held unconstitutional, operates to prevent the executive or the legislature from enforcing it in other cases. This is a mistaken view. When a court of last resort holds a statute unconstitutional, the effect is to wipe the law off the statute-book, and the moment the judgment is pronounced, any official who attempts further enforcement lays himself open, if he interferes with private rights, to a civil action in which he may be subjected to heavy damages. It is common sense and the fear of the consequences that make people refrain from trying to carry into effect laws once held to be void. The judiciary is, with us, above the legislature as to these matters — not coördinate with it.

MACAN'S HERODOTUS.

Herodotus: The Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Books, with Introduction, Notes, Appendices, and Maps. By Reginald Walter Macan, M.A. Macmillan & Co.

SINCE the learned and comprehensive work of Rawlinson, this is undoubtedly the most important English contribution towards a scientific study and sympathetic appreciation of the labors of the Father of History. Some good excuse should be offered for the appearance of a new edition which expends eight hundred pages on one-third of the history, and we really believe that Mr. Macan has justified himself. Whether he might have spared his readers a hundred or more pages by rigid self-denial and condensation is another question. But there is a luxury in taking plenty of sea-room; and Mr. Macan, if sometimes diffuse, is never tiresome. He uses occasionally hard and strange words which one must search for in the very largest dictionary, or perhaps in an American newspaper; it makes one's eyes open to see such oddities of expression as "gold galore," "to sleep six months on end," "not but what," "they gat them away," "contagmination," and "to penalize," used by a scholar who dwells not far from the fountain of pure English, which used to flow in Balliol. But at any rate Mr. Macan's style is strong in itself and strong in the weight of matter and research which it presents.

The special value of his attitude is that, while recognizing most fully the transcendent merits of Herodotus's narrative and achievement, he also points out with great penetration his numerous defects when judged by modern historical standards, and the sources of these defects. Finally, he sets himself to work to discover, by a searching analysis, the precise historical facts which underlie the various portions of narrative which he has undertaken to edit. His attitude differs fundamentally from that of Mr. Sayce, who found but little save abuse for the Egyptian and Persian episodes of the history—who suggests to us a bizarre picture of Herodotus listening open-mouthed to his dragoman and taking notes which he afterwards disarranges, highly gullible yet withal ready to gull his fellow-creatures, a "malignant" plunderer of the ideas and observations of his rivals who tries to conceal his theft; in short, an arrant liar and rogue, who poses under the mask of honest candor and simplicity. Mr. Macan does not join the side of the out-and-out sceptics like Sayce and Delbrück. He gives us a picture at once completer, fairer, and more flattering—more like that masterly and most satisfactory delineation which M. Hauvette offers with so much learning, measure, and sobriety; a delineation which reconciles so completely our spontaneous impression of the character of the man with the peculiarities of the historian.

Although not indebted to M. Hauvette, Mr. Macan agrees in general with his point of view. He gives us, in fact, the keenest, the most discriminating, the most exhaustive presentation of the methods and the merits of Herodotus which we have yet seen in English. Even as to that conglomerate of "traditions, legends, memories, and imaginations" of which the first three books are composed, where it would be, as he says, a "veritable labor of Psyche to sort and separate the fictitious from the true"—even in these, the least historical of the Histories of Herodotus, when tried by careful and discriminating methods, "there remains a great deal of almost infinite value for the historian proper, apart from its secondary value as illustrative literature, which the harshest critic cannot deny." Of the remaining six books, "large portions of particular statements may pass unchallenged into the historical order." "Yet, if the time is gone by when the work could be dismissed 'as a pack of lies,' the time is also gone by when the mere citation of a chapter of Herodotus can be taken as definitive. The historical value of the work varies from volume to volume, from book to book, almost from sentence to sentence."

To discover and to weigh these varying values by a detailed application of the critical method must be the business of the critical historian; it is the object of Mr. Macan's edition to apply this sifting process in detail to Books iv., v., and vi. The results are contained in the elaborate foot-notes of vol. i. and the fourteen dissertations which make up vol. ii. It is not possible here to catalogue the results, but there is no doubt at all that Mr. Macan, by a combination of good sense, keen penetration, and ample learning, has shed a useful and novel light on many important questions. To take a single instance, there is the battle of Marathon. This ancient problem, which has been so often attacked and with such varying solutions, is all the more fascinating because it involves many unknown quantities and so few data that are fixed. Indeed, the data given by Herodotus are so vague and inconsequent that it is possible the great traveller never took the trouble to visit the battle-ground, or to consult the evidence of documents and monuments for information. Dr. Evelyn Abbott professes himself somewhat tired of this question and hopeless of any further solution. Instead of discussing it once more, he gives his readers the sources, and leaves them to draw conclusions for themselves. Mr. Macan is more courageous. He has attacked the question once more, in an excursus which is the largest and most elaborate of his fourteen appendices. It is a choice specimen of his thoroughness and acuteness—perhaps we may add of his prolixity; for he writes as if he had all day and night before him. He permits himself to conjecture the probable value of a possible narrative by Aristotle, nor does he deny himself an allusion to the midges which, as Aristotle affirms, arise from the marshes of Marathon after a warm and pleasant day. But these are the foibles of an enthusiast who is eager to neglect nothing that may pertain to his topic. As a matter of fact, Mr. Macan does extract from his exhaustive discussion a reconstruction of the motives and strategy of the battle which is quite plausible, reasonable, and consistent. The outlines of his theory are not novel, but the combination is on the whole novel and satisfactory.

The hinge of his theory is this: The Athenians finally made the attack because the Persians had just begun a forward movement toward Athens by land and sea with the intention of assaulting the city. This movement was furthered and timed, to a certain extent (though not started), by the signal of a shield displayed to the Persians by Athenian sympathizers on the Pentelicus or Agrieliki. The Persian cavalry were therefore partly aboard the fleet, partly *hors de combat*, while the army was marching southward toward the main road to Athens. The Persian line fronted the mountain pass of Avlona whence the Athenians issued; their right rested on the "Charadra," or water-course, to the north; their left on the smaller marsh, Brexisa, to the south. This plan, varying in detail from that of Crusius, Delbrück, and Busolt, solves equally two main puzzles, or *cruces:* it accounts for the facility with which the Persians, after the defeat, got away with most of their fleet; it accounts also for the absence of the cavalry—that harrowing difficulty of all strategic critics. It does not find room or special occasion for the mile-long running charge of the Athenians which Herodotus mentions with such emphasis, and which has been generally disbelieved. In view of certain French military experiments for longer distances, M. Hauvette accepts this charge as a possibility for well-trained athletes, and utilizes the movement in his scheme of the battle (which seems to us *pro tanto* preferable to Mr. Macan's) as part of a rapid change of front, executed to face and surprise the Persians. It will be remembered that Herodotus first states that Hippias chose the plain of Marathon because "it was suitable for the manœuvring of cavalry," and yet, in his account of the battle, absolutely ignores the cavalry, as if they had slipped clean away, or clean out of his mind. It is, in fact, quite likely, as Mr. Macan suggests, that they had slipped out of his mind when he was writing his somewhat misty sketch of the battle.

Such forgetfulness seems to us highly unscientific; but Herodotus was neither a soldier nor a scientist. He did not care much—his hearers cared even less—for accurate tactics and topography. He could not have obtained such information from the veterans of Marathon, if he had tried. What they and his hearers liked best, undoubtedly, was his stories of individual prowess, his epic history of a grand national achievement, his tales of the marvellous, and, above all, his moralities. In these tastes Herodotus was like his audience: he holds the mirror up to his own time; he reflects the popular spirit, the superstition, the beliefs of his age, much more exactly than the scientific Thucydides. Thucydides is a modern, a mind of the nineteenth century. He had some intellectual comrades (of his own way of thinking) even in his own age. Yet it is likely that Herodotus has given us a work of greater value than if he had attempted prematurely to apply the method of Thucydides—the modern method—to the complex mass of material with which he dealt. The result would have been more sophisticated and less trustworthy. Herodotus has, of course, his standards; he is far from believing everything he hears. He

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is by no means destitute of the critical faculty, but he applies it unequally and capriciously. "A modern critic," says Mr. Macan, "might charge him with a failure of political insight"; and, notwithstanding examples of marked shrewdness and penetration, his rationale of the movements of events "falls far short of the policy and statecraft of the age which he describes and represents." This statement is probably truer of the politics of the Greek than of the Eastern world of his day. The Orientalism of his motives, the personal whim and caprice which we see in his story of Polycrates, of Crœsus and Cyrus, must certainly have ruled to some extent the fortunes of that Eastern world as they ruled at the court of Haroun al-Rashid, or in the adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan. But there is no denying that Herodotus loved to point to the turns of the wheel of fortune; he is fond of the *deus ex machina*. He looks at the world and mankind through colored glasses; to him human "life is a sphere for the realization of divine judgments, and human history a book of fables with a moral." Hence he is like a novelist with a purpose—he writes history with a motive; his dearest delight is to point a moral and adorn a tale. Indeed, that is a main object in rehearsing the failure of the Persian invasion, and a subsidiary object in a multitude of minor episodes—in the story of Crœsus and of Miltiades.

A most striking and unsuspected instance of these tendencies and of the pitfalls which they offer to the historian has been unearthed by Mr. Macan, aided by a suggestion of Mr. Arnold C. Taylor. Curtius, in sketching the career of Cleisthenes of Sicyon, accepts in detail with a certain amount of confidence the celebrated tale of the wedding of Agariste. It is related by Herodotus with a kind of epic pomp and circumstance, and the gathering of the suitors is an echo, we may think, of some Homeric account of the assembling of the suitors of Helen. The affair, indeed, reminds one of the Hindu custom of "swayamvara" such as that in which Nala won Damayanti. The story ends, it will be remembered, with the reckless behavior of the Athenian Hippocleides, the cleverest and wittiest of the suitors, who lost his head at the final banquet, disgusted his prospective father-in-law by his pranks and indecent performances, and "danced away" his marriage. Now the startling fact which Mr. Macan's appendix brings to light is that the parallel of this very legend is contained in one of the Buddhist birth-stories translated by Mr. T. H. Rhys-Davids. In this tale, the king of the birds, the Golden Goose, holds a *swayamvara* for his daughter to which he assembles all the birds of the Himalaya region, and bids his daughter choose a husband. Her choice rests upon the peacock, with his brilliant plumage, whereupon the peacock, proud of the distinction and anxious to display his charms still further, spread his wings and began to dance, exposing himself "in breach of all modesty." The royal Golden Goose is shocked by this indecent exposure and bestows his daughter on his nephew, an exemplary gosling. There is hardly the ghost of a chance that this tale travelled to India from Greece, and that the Golden Goose is a metempsychosis of Cleisthenes. All scientific probability points the other way. The Greek story is an historic tradition entangled and overgrown with the decorative ivy of a popular fable. Less than two centuries were required for this growth and transformation; and Herodotus simply handed down what he heard, dressed up in his own admirable manner. The historic facts are not obliterated, but they are considerably disguised.

We have here a clear proof of the caution with which the details of Herodotean narrative must be sifted, more particularly when it involves folk-lore. The folk-lore is quite patent in the story of Atys, foredoomed to be slain by steel, in the clever thief of the treasury of Rhampsinitus, in the ring of Polycrates, in the beautiful tale of Helen of Therapne bestowing the gift of beauty on the future wife of Ariston. All these are still echoed in the 'Arabian Nights' or elsewhere, and are themselves melodious echoes of folk-lore older than Herodotus, but crystallized and adorned by his consummate literary art.

THE MERRYMOUNT MISSAL.

The Altar Book: Containing the Order for the Celebration of the Holy Eucharist according to the Use of the American Church MDCCCXCII. By Authority. [Boston: The Merrymount Press (D. B. Updike).]

Mr. Updike deserves well of his church for the labor of love which has produced this magnificent volume. The Anglican liturgy, like all its sister Rites, lends itself easily to decorative art. What was accomplished by the missal painter of the Middle Age by creamy parchment and a wealth of color and exquisite miniature work, Mr. Updike gives us in the measure of our days by the most careful bookmaking and by decoration in black and white.

The origin and development of the English Prayer-Book make neither a long nor an unfamiliar story. Up to the time of Edward VI. there was, in the Church of England, no one precise order of celebrating the Eucharist binding upon all churches. In the centuries between the mission of St. Augustine and the beginning of the sixteenth century the original liturgy, if indeed there were only one, had developed into many and various local "Uses." These variations, however, were relatively slight; they did not touch the structure of the liturgy at all. A liturgy, or Mass—to use a more convenient technical word which ought to be colorless—has a structure of its own as distinct and as much a matter of rule as the structure of a symphony is. It is, in fact, a mystical drama, in which is shown symbolically the Life and Passion of Christ. Every liturgy from the very earliest shows this with more or less plainness, though it is perhaps set forth with greater clearness in the later Roman Rite than in some of the earlier ones. These Uses, then, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, divided the Church of England among them. The great Sarum Rite, "Insignis Ecclesiæ Sarisburiensis," seems to have prevailed in the south of England, and was carried so far as to certain churches in Ireland and in Scotland. In the north of England, the Use of York was followed; west of the Severn, that of Hereford seems to have been adopted, and, in North Wales, the Use of Bangor. But all these churches appear to have retained peculiarities of their own. Maskell shows, for instance, that there was an ancient Use of the Cathedral of St. Paul in London, held in high esteem till the year 1414, when the Use of Sarum was substituted. But though this last regulated the order of saying and singing, St. Paul's is expressly said to have retained its ancient ceremonies and observances as they were from the beginning.

These diversities, most interesting as they are from a liturgiological point of view, and giving as they did great scope to beautiful ritual development, met with little favor in the eyes of the Reformers, just as the Roman authorities within the present century disliked and have destroyed the Paris rite and many another, and would doubtless be glad to root out thoroughly even the Ambrosian. So the English Reformers were determined that "now from henceforth all the whole realm shall have but one Use." This was said at the time of the setting forth of the first Prayer-Book of Edward VI. in 1549. The revision of the old offices had been going on since 1542. Edward's First Book may be described, somewhat generously, as a severe recension and revision (if not a reconstruction) of the Sarum Use. It lost much in point of liturgical beauty, and was made awkward by the introduction of much didactic and hortatory matter. For the first time in ecclesiastical history what are practically sermons were introduced into a missal. But the English form was of high excellence, and the Mass itself not substantially changed. The Second Book, which appeared in 1552, showed more important changes, some of which must be called nothing less than wanton, like the removal of the *Gloria in Excelsis* from the beginning to the end of the Mass. This simply destroyed the sequence of the liturgic drama. Some "Ritualists" find, we believe, a certain doctrinal satisfaction in the change, but with doctrinal considerations we have nothing to do. From the point of view of the liturgiologist it was a great mistake and is a blemish. The other changes in the Second Book were all in the direction of restriction and narrowness. The book had, however, but a brief existence, for it was superseded within a few months by the revival of the Latin Mass at Mary's accession, and is interesting chiefly as forming the basis of the restored Prayer-book under Elizabeth in 1559, and, through that, of the later revisions.

All these revisions, one after another, down to the last one in America in 1892, have been, on the whole, liturgical improvements. The Anglican liturgy, while not perhaps "incomparable," save in the stately and beautiful flow of its English speech, is still, no doubt, the best known and best loved by the people who use it of all Christian religious formularies. It is not entirely unlike many a church which may be seen in England, with Saxon or Norman arches in its crypt and Gothic architecture of two or three periods appearing in its nave and chancel, with a Renaissance porch, and perhaps a Georgian three-decker blocking up the east end. Time and use have blunted the sense which perceives many of these incongruities. Age has made them venerable in some sort, and has inspired affection for them. Their distant origin even seems to make them blend, as distance blends inharmonious voices. It may possibly be that what are, when viewed with a severely critical eye, the defects of the Anglican liturgy, have themselves only added to the devotion with which the Prayer-Book is cherished, and which has enshrined it next to the Bible in the English religious mind.

Mr. Updike, then, has had a worthy field in which to display all his ability, his judgment, and his knowledge of his art. He has drawn upon these unsparingly, and, besides, has lavished time and pains and money upon the perfection of his book. Many difficult questions he must have had to consider and settle. Some people, doubtless, would have been glad to see full and minute ritual directions introduced

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into the volume, and additional prayers for the priest's own use, and perhaps Collects, Epistles and Gospels for votive masses, and would fain have made the present volume something like Mr. Orby Shipley's 'Ritual of the Altar,' which was published by Longmans in 1878. Mr. Updike has wisely avoided this snare. His book is exactly and precisely what the Church prescribes, and nothing else. The text follows exactly the Revised Standard Book of Common Prayer of 1892. The most scrupulous pains have been taken that the text should be as correct as possible, and the book has the great advantage of being issued "by authority." So far as we know, no other similar missal possesses this. Among those who have collaborated with Mr. Updike, the highest praise is perhaps due to Mr. Bertram Grosvenor Goodhue, who has not only furnished the elaborate and intricate borders in black and white, but has also designed the initial letters throughout the volume, and the type by which it is printed. The type is most satisfying—clear and round and handsome, suggesting the best sixteenth-century fonts. Mr. Goodhue's symbolism in his borders and initials has been worked out with much care and is not too recondite to be easily understood. Most of all, the arrangement and application of the symbols deserve notice and praise. The illustrations include pictures suitable to the great festivals of the Christian year and a Crucifixion facing the Prayer of Consecration. They are the work of Mr. Anning Bell of Liverpool. These have at least one great merit, which is enough to make them shine in their own *genre:* they are, with one possible exception, neither sentimental nor weak. The drawings for Easter and for Trinity Sunday are especially to be commended. Only so far as in any, however distant, way they suggest the work of Dürer do they give occasion for regret. The musical notation of the book has been in the hands of Sir John Stainer, who in it has followed Merbecke with praiseworthy closeness. Of his own work there is but little, except a few notes to the *Kyrie*, and the Summary of the Law; the latter based on the cadences of the Comfortable Words. He adds, also, some notes on a separate sheet with tones for the Collects, Epistles, and Gospels, which will be found useful. The music is printed with the old square notes on a red staff.

The book would have been more conveniently arranged, no doubt, if the Communion Office had been put in the middle of the volume after the Gospel for Easter Even, as is common in missals; but this convenience would have been dearly bought, for it would have prevented the publication of the book "by authority." The order of the offices in the Standard Book is rigidly fixed. So, too, it would have been a convenience if the Canon, or Prayer of Consecration, had been printed on two pages facing each other, so that no leaf need be turned during its recital. But this would have left no place for the picture of the Crucifixion. The binding of the volume is of pigskin, strong and handsome. The covers might, perhaps, have been with advantage a trifle thicker and the metal clasps stouter. The type of the book has been set under the publisher's personal supervision at his Merrymount Press, in Boston, and the printing, in red and black, executed at the De Vinne Press.

Mr. Updike has endeavored, as he says, "to make a volume on ideal principles with satisfactory practical results." His aim has been nothing short of perfection, and we have tried to judge his book by his own standard. We believe that we have found all the fault with it that can fairly be found—save one, that the edition consists of only three hundred and fifty copies, and that the book will therefore soon be out of print.

The Red Badge of Courage: An Episode of the American Civil War.—*Maggie:* A Girl of the Streets. By Stephen Crane. D. Appleton & Co.—*George's Mother:* By Stephen Crane. London and New York: Edward Arnold. 1896.

Mr. Stephen Crane is said never to have seen a battle; but his first book, 'The Red Badge of Courage,' is made up of the account of one. The success of the story, however, is due, not merely to what Mr. Crane knows of battle-fields, but to what he knows of the human heart. He describes the adventures of a private—a raw recruit—in one of those long engagements, so common in our civil war, and indeed in all modern wars, in which the field of battle is too extensive for those in one part of it to know what is going on elsewhere, and where often a regiment remains in ignorance for some time whether it is victorious or defeated, where the nature of the country prevents hand-to-hand fighting, and a *coup d'œil* of the whole scene is out of the question. In such an action Mr. Crane's hero plays an active part. It is what goes on in his mind that we hear of, and his experience is in part so exactly what old soldiers tell young soldiers to expect that Mr. Crane might easily have got it at second-hand. The hero is at first mortally afraid that he is going to be afraid, he then does his duty well enough, but later is seized with a panic and runs away, only to come out a hero again in the end. His panic and flight are managed well; the accidental wound which he luckily gets in running, helps him to a reputation for bravery before he has earned it. When he fights in the end, he fights like a devil, he saves the regimental flag, he is insane with the passion of battle; he is baptized into the brotherhood of those who have been to hell and returned alive. The book is undeniably clever; its vice is over-emphasis. Mr. Crane has not learnt the secret that carnage is itself eloquent, and does not need epithets to make it so. What is a "crimson roar"? Do soldiers hear crimson roars, or do they hear simply roars? If this way of getting expression out of language is allowable, why not extend it to the other senses, and have not only crimson sounds, but purple smells, prehensile views, adhesive music? Color in language is just now a fashionable affectation; Mr. Crane's originality does not lie in falling into it. 'George's Mother' is the story of a degenerate drunkard who breaks his mother's heart; 'Maggie' is a story of the Bowery, in the "dialect" of "Chimmie Fadden."

Taking all three stories together, we should classify Mr. Crane as a rather promising writer of the animalistic school. His types are mainly human beings of the order which makes us regret the power of literature to portray them. Not merely are they low, but there is little that is interesting in them. We resent the sense that we must at certain points resemble them. Even the old mother is not made pathetic in a human way; her son disgusts us so that we have small power of sympathy with her left. Maggie it is impossible to weep over. We can feel only that it is a pity that the gutter is so dirty, and turn in another direction. In short, Mr. Crane's art is to us very depressing. Of course, there is always the crushing reply that one who does not love art for the sake of art is a poor devil, not worth writing for. But we do not; we do not even love literature for its own sake.

It is only fair to say that what we have called animalism others pronounce wonderful realism. We use the word animalism for the sake of clearness, to denote a species of realism which deals with man considered as an animal, capable of hunger, thirst, lust, cruelty, vanity, fear, sloth, predacity, greed, and other passions and appetites that make him kin to the brutes, but which neglects, so far as possible, any higher qualities which distinguish him from his four-footed relatives, such as humor, thought, reason, aspiration, affection, morality, and religion. Real life is full of the contrasts between these conflicting tendencies, but the object of the animalistic school seems always to make a study of the *genus homo* which shall recall the menagerie at feeding-time rather than human society.

Regeneration: A Reply to Max Nordau. With Introduction by Nicholas Murray Butler. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 311.

The anonymous author of this work assures us that Max Nordau's book has become a nightmare to millions of human beings, that people have been aroused by it from the "lethargy produced by the din of clashing opinions and contradictory systems" (an ill-fitting figure!), and that he knows cases of people of sensitive mind who imagine that, "thanks to this book, their friends will look upon them as on the road to lunacy." It is evident that so much misery is in crying need of being alleviated, and we hasten to inform these sufferers that they will find in 'Regeneration' a perfect remedy for all their ills. The author has set himself the task of replying to the exaggerations of Max Nordau with great detail; one cannot rise from reading his book without being fully convinced that Nordau has failed to establish his position, and that his indictment against humanity as being well on the road to lunacy is, to say the least, not proven. The author takes up in turn the attacks which Nordau makes on the pre-Raphaelites, on Ibsen, Tolstoi, and Wagner, and it is safe to say that those timid souls who have felt constrained to give up their admiration for these great artists for fear lest they were following after erratic and irresponsible will-o'-the-wisps, may now return to their allegiance with recovered peace of mind. It is true that our author does not do all this with the brilliancy which William James devoted to the same thesis in the pages of the *Psychological Review*, but he does it with perfect effectiveness; and if only the brilliant people were allowed to write, of the making of many books there would soon be an end. The scientist, and especially the psychologist, will not make much account of this volume, but then the author has a poor opinion of these misguided people anyway, and he had small hope of turning them from the error of their ways.

It is true that his idea of just what it is that the scientists believe on various points is sometimes rather hazy, as the following sentences will show:

"A hundred years ago the scientists would have laughed to scorn any one who had told them that their senses deceived them with regard to light, darkness, colors, silence, and sound, and that all these presentations received by our senses were simply movement, or manifestations of energy."

"It is not surprising that a scientist by erudition (!), and especially an alienist, who by dint of studying the mechanism which connects what some call the soul, and others designate

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as the trinity of the consciousness, the judgment, and the will (!), with the body, has persuaded himself that there is nothing beyond nerves, cells, and the gray matter (!), should look with contempt on the imagination."

One would gladly know who is this enviable scientist who has been able to get at the "mechanism which connects" soul and body, and to study it!

"Psychologists are prone to speak of a man's consciousness, though scarcely two scientific men would agree as to what it is. But this does not prevent them from dividing consciousness up into divisions and subdivisions, all with their special names, in order to be able to express their ideas in words."

It must be admitted that this looks like a laudable motive on the part of the psychologist, whatever may be thought of the means which he employs to attain it. But not all scientists are as bad as psychologists:

"All scientists are not affected by scientific superstition. . . . Thus, astronomers rarely exhibit any such symptoms, while biologists are more apt to do so, and psychologists are more scientifically superstitious than any other class of scientists. It might be hazardous to attempt an explanation of this fact, but may it not be found in the obviousness of outward infinity, and the impalpability of inward infinity?"

Lest these examples may not be a sufficient indication of what the author is capable of in the way of style, we add one more:

"Should we find, on the other hand, that the deplorable state among the poorer classes—their suffering, their degradation, and their joyless lives, coexisting with large fortunes, and irremediable under present laws and institutions—leads to the conclusion that the altruistic feelings of the wealthy are useless, and thus prompt among the upper classes selfishness and egomania, and the determination to drown their higher emotions in a giddy life, and in the poorer classes to foster destructive tendencies and the desire for revenge, we turn our attention to social remedies."

Occasionally even the author himself loses his way in sentences of this kind, and ends with *deny* where he means to say *affirm*, or *folly* where he means to say *wisdom* (pp. 105, 67). He has a curious way of saying *ego* for soul, and "personal responsibility" for a future state of rewards and punishments. He says: "It is not the well-meaning, plodding scientist, striving to arrest disease, lessen pain, and dispel superstition, that can bounce us into the belief in personal irresponsibility." And here is a curious bit of thinking: he believes that in the Franco-German war the victory of the Germans was due to the moral quality of the German army, while the defeat of the French is to be attributed not to lack of moral qualities, but to bad leadership.

But it should not be supposed that the book is all quite as bad as this. There are two subordinate topics, in fact, which the author treats at considerable length, and on which he writes with a good deal of freshness and with a degree of intelligence that would seem to indicate an acquaintance at first hand. These are his description of the peculiar character and tone of feeling of the people of Norway, in refuting Nordau's charge that Ibsen is writing in the air; and his picture of the average German man in the character of husband of the average German wife. Under this latter head, he points out that the Germans are perfectly sensible to the charm of high-spirited, talented, well dressed, and lively women, and that they are also aware that leisure, exemption from hard work, good food, exercise, suitable friends, artistic surroundings, books, a fair amount of pleasure, and considerate treatment are essential to the production of women of this kind. But it is not this kind of woman that they wish to marry—it would clash too widely with the traditional type of a good wife, and would set their whole circle of acquaintances talking; nor is it the kind of woman that they wish their daughters to develop into—they must not have a distinct individuality, or it will go hard with them in the marriage market. Women must eschew romantic ideas, they must practise a demure demeanor, they must notice the evils that follow upon poverty and be content with a prosperous though unattractive husband; men seldom marry young, and girls are taught to ask no question about their past, to sacrifice their own ideals of purity, their dreams of love, their future happiness, their healthful youth, upon the altar of Philistine respectability. It is fortunate for the race of human beings that different ideals have prevailed in other countries, and that a different sort of woman has had opportunity for development. The dreariness of social intercourse in Germany which results from cutting off half the race from the intellectual life is something which it would be difficult to exaggerate.

A Fauna of the Moray Basin. By J. A. Harvie-Brown and Thomas E. Buckley. In two volumes. Edinburgh: David Douglas.

THE printed title-pages of these volumes bear no dates, the photographic titles both have 1895, and 1896 is stamped on the back of each. The books are technically called small quartos, being deeper but not taller than large octavos. The work forms ostensibly volumes vi. and vii. of a series of local faunas in part by the same authors, and all brought out by the same publisher in similar elegant style. Volume v. deals with the vertebrate fauna of Argyll and the Inner Hebrides, 1892; iv., with the same fauna of the Orkney Islands, 1891; iii., with the birds of Iona and Mull (by the late H. D. Graham), 1890; ii., with the vertebrate fauna of the Outer Hebrides, 1887; i., with the vertebrate fauna of Scotland. The two last are out of print. Each of these works is of monographic character, complete in itself, and independent of the rest; and they collectively form part of a still larger series of books of the same general character, several of which we have already had occasion to notice, always with approbation. Such are Charles St. John's 'Natural History and Sport in Moray' (1882), and his 'Tour in Sutherlandshire,' the second edition of which (1884) has a faunal appendix by Harvie-Brown and Buckley; 'The Capercaillie in Scotland,' by Harvie Brown; and Muirhead's 'Birds of Berwickshire.' The set of books is distinctively British, but not confined to sport and natural history in those islands, as it includes Gätke's 'Heligoland,' H. C. St. John's 'China,' the Earl of Southesk's 'Saskatchewan,' and others.

The general character of these works is high, with all the appointments of fine manufacture, and profuse illustration in various styles of art, from thumb-nail sketches in the text to elaborate engravings of compositions from the portfolios of well-known artists, among whom Millais and Keulemans may be named; photogravure is also much used, with striking effect in many cases. The present volumes are among the most elegant of the lot, and may fairly be called sumptuous. They show leisurely and experienced authorship, based on great resources in the way of materials, and abundant pecuniary means for effecting the desired result. They are also among the more formal and technical volumes of the series, in which scenic effect and the freehandedness of "outings" are subordinated to serious scientific work.

Lest "Moray Basin" may convey no very definite notions to the average American, we may say that it is practically the watershed of Moray Firth in Scotland, and some considerable adjoining country lying on the whole northwest of Aberdeen. Sutherland, Ross and Cromarty, Inverness, Nairn, Elgin, and Banff are included in the area to be treated faunally. The greater part of the first volume is occupied with an elaborate physiography of this region, which will abundantly satisfy the cravings of nearly all readers for information in that regard, and probably leave none but some of the most critical special students of the subject anything to require further. The rest of the work is a formal and systematic fauna, in so far as this is represented by vertebrates, carried into great detail. Of its thoroughness there is no question, and none but a local expert could pretend to criticise it minutely. The authors find in their bailiwick just about one-half of the British mammals—42 species out of 81.

As is invariably the case in works of this nature, birds are the most conspicuous and extensive feature of the lists, and also the subjects most elaborated. Out of 360 to 370 species which the authors allow to the holy canon of "British Birds," they give 255 a place in these volumes, and sum them up in nine distinct categories, one of which we observe to be a list of 26 species "recorded on insufficient evidence." Herpetology is at a minimum, only nine species of reptiles and batrachians together being found in the Moray Basin. Fishes would seem to be called for, by the title, for treatment like that accorded to the higher vertebrates, but there is nothing of the sort in either volume; perhaps recent ichthyology is reserved for due recognition hereafter. In place of any recent fish fauna to match the rest of the work, we have a monograph of entirely different and strictly technical character, on the fossil vertebrates, of which fishes constitute the greater number by far, though a few reptiles are included, and the recently extinct mammals (reindeer, elk, ox, beaver, and wolf) are also noted. Dr. Traquair's memoir includes a geological bibliography, and is illustrated with a series of nine special plates of different character from the other illustrations of the work, besides several cuts in the text.

This publication is thus highly praiseworthy as far as it goes, but would appear to require several more volumes to meet fully the requirements of the extremely comprehensive though curt title.

The Roman See in the Early Church, and Other Studies in Church History. By William Bright, D.D. London: Longmans, Green & Co.

THERE is significance in the fact that the Regius Professor of Ecclesiastical History at Oxford should devote nearly half the present volume to refuting the Roman theory of the continuous tradition of Papal supremacy as recently set forth by the Rev. Luke Rivington. This he accomplishes with abundant learning and acuteness, somewhat marred by occasional obscurity of presentation, but his success or want of success in this is of less account than the fact that he should have deemed it worth his while to undertake the task in the *Church Quarterly Review*, and then to re-

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print his argument enlarged in the present volume. To us the contest between the two champions is chiefly of interest as a manifestation of the curious movement towards Rome on the part of a portion of the Anglican Church, and of the anxiety, if not alarm, which this tendency is producing in the minds of the sturdy adherents of the Edwardian Church. So sagacious a Pontiff as Leo XIII. would scarce have ordered a fresh examination into the old question, decided so long ago, as to the validity of Anglican orders, without an expectation that some concession, in form if not in substance, might result in a "bolt" which would strengthen the cause of Catholicism in England, while Mr. Gladstone's letter to Cardinal Rampolla bears traces of that singular longing for reunion which would seem to justify in some degree the anticipations of the shrewd and far-seeing men who direct the policy of Rome.

To a disinterested onlooker it is suggestive to watch the development of this revival of the mediæval conception that the Church must be one, like the seamless garment of Trèves. It is true that, during the ages of semi-barbarism and brute force, there were advantages in the powerful organization which controlled Europe and transmitted, in a spiritual disguise, the imperialism of ancient Rome to modern times; but monopoly bears within its bosom the seeds of inevitable evils, and the popular antagonism to "trusts" in the commercial world shows how instinctive is the appreciation of the benefits of competition. The mediæval Church was a trust which controlled salvation and sold it at its own price in power and wealth, resulting in a worldliness and corruption scarce conceivable by the present generation. There are dreamers who deplore the sundering of the Church in the sixteenth century, and who imagine that abuses could have been reformed from within, on some such basis as that which Erasmus suggested; but, so long as the Holy See retained a monopoly, such a reform could have been only superficial and temporary, as may be seen by the career of Spain, which allowed no intrusion on the exclusive claims of Catholicism, and consequently was virtually untouched by the Counter-Reformation.

Spiritual dissension may be an evil, but it is a less evil than spiritual torpor, and dissension at least connotes spiritual vitality. So far from the multiplication of sects being an evidence of error, as Bossuet endeavored to show, it is an evidence of earnest seeking after the truth, and, so long as modern ideas prevent persecution for conscience' sake, it merely stimulates a healthy competition to advance the kingdom of righteousness. No greater misfortune could befall the Christian world than a restoration of unity under Latin Christianity, and, in this, Latin Christianity itself would be one of the chief sufferers. Fortunately such reunion is impossible, however much the advanced type of Anglican priests may long for it; and although we cannot look upon the labors of Mr. Bright as a very efficient instrumentality in preventing it, they deserve recognition as a sufficient exposition of the hollowness of the claims of the Petrine Church that the Vatican decree is securely rooted in apostolic principles and practice.

The other essays in the volume are fair academical discourses, manifesting sufficient acquaintance with the subjects discussed, but presenting nothing new.

Memoirs of an Artist. By Charles Francis Gounod. Translated by Annette E. Crocker. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. Pp. 223.

Charles Gounod: Autobiographical Reminiscences, with Family Letters and Notes on Music. From the French by Hon. W. Hely Hutchinson. Philadelphia: Lippincott. Pp. 267.

Two translations of Gounod's autobiographic fragment have appeared almost simultaneously. Both are well done, and while the first-named has the merit of cheapness, the second is more terse and idiomatic, and free from the occasional blunders which occur in the first (pp. 111, 118, 125, 127, 139). Mrs. Crocker's version contains only the memoirs and a few letters; Mr. Hutchinson's includes further letters and five articles of Gounod's on Berlioz, Saint-Saëns, Nature and Art, The Academy of France at Rome, The Artist and Modern Society. Both versions are elegantly printed and bound.

The noblest trait of Gounod's character was his affection for his mother. "If I have worked any good, by word or deed, during my life, I owe it to my mother," he says, "and to her I give praise." He had reason to adore her, for she was one of the most devoted, self-sacrificing women in the annals of art. Her childhood had been unhappy because of parental dissensions, and, as the family was poor, she began giving piano lessons at the age of eleven. She gradually saved enough money to go from Rouen to Paris (a three days' trip by coach) once in three months, for a lesson of Adam at the Conservatoire. At twenty-six she married François-Louis Gounod, well known as a painter; a man of talent, but of frail health and a weak will. He took pleasure in drawing the essentials of a picture—face, expression, etc.—but left the accessories and drudgery to his wife, who luckily also had talent for drawing, and was thus able to finish what he left undone. In 1823 she found herself a widow with two boys, Charles, aged five, and an older brother of fifteen. The widow now took it upon her to support the family by continuing her husband's drawing-class as well as her music lessons, but found ere long that she was overtaxing her strength, whereupon she dropped the former and confined herself to music lessons, to which she devoted twelve hours a day.

Charles Gounod also had to make his choice between music and painting. His talent for both was about the same. He remembered how, as a boy, he used to lie on the floor drawing eyes, noses, and mouths with a white crayon on a varnished blackboard, and he had no doubt that if his father had lived he would have become a painter too; this opinion must have been confirmed when no less an authority than Ingres, after seeing some of his amateur sketches at Rome, told him he might have secured the *grand prix de Rome* for painting as easily as for music. The fates had decided in favor of music, luckily, for France needed another good composer much more than another good painter. His mother used to be proud when, as an infant, he could give musical hints to grown-up girls, and she lived to see him give many other proofs of his talent, including the winning of the Roman prize at the second trial; yet she had her misgivings as to a musical career, and did not live to witness his first lasting success, the opera "Faust."

As holder of the Roman prize, Gounod was obliged to spend two years in Rome. That city was at first a great disappointment. "Instead of the city of my dreams, majestic and imposing, full of ancient temples, antique monuments, and picturesque ruins, I saw a mere provincial town, vulgar, characterless, and, in most places, very dirty." In course of time he not only became reconciled, but enthusiastic, and when he left, after overstaying his time several months, tears rolled down his cheeks. This feeling, however, was based entirely on artistic and social considerations, for musically Rome had little to offer to the talented young composer except a chance to become familiar with the works of Palestrina. As it is almost impossible to eradicate from the American mind the impression that Italy was and is the musical centre of the universe, it is worth while to quote a few of Gounod's remarks:

"As regarded religious music, the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican was the only place where it was possible to hear anything decent, to say nothing of its being instructive. What they called music in the other churches was enough to make one shiver. Except in the Sistine Chapel, and in that called the 'Canon's Chapel' in St. Peter's, the music was not merely worthless, it was vile. It is hard to imagine how such a chamber of horrors could ever have come to be offered up to the glory of God within those sacred walls. All the shabbiest tinsel and trappings of secular music passed across the trestles of this religious masquerade. So no wonder I never tried it twice."

Equally unsatisfactory he found the opera, the only other field of music cultivated by the Italians. Bellini, Donizetti, and Mercadante made up the repertory, and "the performances were very inferior to those at the Théâtre Italien in Paris. . . . The stage management, too, was often literally grotesque." Consequently Gounod went to the opera seldom, finding it more profitable to stay at home and study the scores of Rossini, Gluck, Lulli, and especially his beloved Mozart, whose "Don Juan" remained always his favorite opera. Mozart and Bach were his idols, and "Mozart," he says, "bears the same relation to Palestrina and Bach as the New Testament bears to the Old, in Holy Writ."

When he reached Vienna, Gounod found a very different musical atmosphere—good operas, good singers, and "that universal diffusion of musical knowledge which is such a delightful and peculiar feature in Germany." In Leipzig he was most cordially received by Mendelssohn, who called a special meeting of the famous Gewandhaus orchestra to play his Scotch symphony for him, and who commented on a passage of the "Dies Irae" which Gounod had composed in Vienna—"My boy, that might have been written by Cherubini."

The last forty pages of the Memoirs are devoted chiefly to an account of Gounod's early efforts as an opera composer, up to "Faust," which had been in his mind nearly twenty years before it appeared on the stage. Here the autobiography breaks off suddenly, probably for the reason that there were episodes in Gounod's later life which he did not care to dwell on. Of the essays appended to Mr. Hutchinson's version all contain some good things, besides a considerable amount of declamation and "fine writing." The best are those on Berlioz, whom Gounod calls "one of the greatest emotional influences of my youth," and on Saint-Saëns, to whom he pays this tribute:

"He has an enormous power of assimilation. He can write you a work in any style you choose—Rossini's, Verdi's, Schumann's, Wagner's. He knows them all thoroughly—the surest safeguard, it may be, against his imitating any. He never suffers from that bugbear of the chicken-hearted, the dread of not

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making his effect. He never exaggerates; thus he is never far-fetched, nor violent, nor over-emphatic."

Notes of the Night, and Other Outdoor Sketches. By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. The Century Co. 1896.

SOME nature-lovers tell us of the dawn and of the twilight, and the sunlit hours we may know for ourselves; but it has been Dr. Abbott's ambition to learn what goes on at every moment of the entire day, nor has he discriminated between the seasons. There is nothing absolute, and on the darkest night something may be seen, although the images are distorted and magnified. Neither does perfect silence ever prevail, for multitudes of living things have nocturnal pursuits, and even those whose chief business is by day are wakeful, and recognize the moon or the aurora with inarticulate comments. Perhaps they, like men, suffer from mysterious terrors when darkness deepens, realizing how helpless they are without the sense of sight. We think of night as dark and damp and chilly; but, as Dr. Abbott reminds us, there are moonlit nights when nearly the whole world can be seen in different attire from that of the day, and when the air is warm and dry. The stories of his nocturnal rambles are very pleasantly told, and they open a new field of travel, more accessible than central Africa or the Arctic zone, and almost as little trod.

"Notes of the Night" is the longest and most original of the essays collected here, the others following more conventional lines. In style they remind us of Thoreau, whom Dr. Abbott highly appreciates and defends against unsympathetic critics. We need, he maintains, "an infusion of intellect into the lower strata of man's activities"; and "the intellectuality that Emerson deplored as dissipated was put to the very highest of uses, that of making the lower or simpler things of life shine out in their proper light." We need not pass upon this point, but only remark that while Thoreau's style is richer in literary allusion and in profounder thought, Dr. Abbott keeps somewhat closer to nature—is, in the technical sense, more of a naturalist. His book is daintily printed and bound, and is to be considered by those who are getting together their vacation reading. The author's modest hope, that it contains some "profitable reflections readably expressed," is certainly justified.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Stumbler in Wide Shoes. Henry Holt & Co.
Boldrewood, Rolf. Old Melbourne Memories. 2d ed. Macmillan. $1.75.
Bunner, H. C. Jersey Street and Jersey Lane. Scribners. $1.25.
Clarke, George. The Education of Children at Rome. Macmillan. 75c.
Cockburn, Rev. G. John Chinaman: His Ways and Notions. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Colonel Hungerford's Daughter. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Cooper, J. F. The Sea-Lions; or, The Lost Sealers. [Mohawk Edition.] Putnams. $1.25.
Cossins, George. Isban-Israel: A South African Story. London: Gay & Bird.
Cowperthwait, J. H. Money, Silver, and Finance. 3d ed. American News Co. 25c.
Crane, Stephen. George's Mother. Edward Arnold. 75c.
Crane, Stephen. Maggie: A Girl of the Streets. Appletons.
Crashaw, Prof. W. H. The Interpretation of Literature. Macmillan. $1.
Denormandie, M. Notes et Souvenirs. 3d ed. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Dickens, Charles. Christmas Stories. Macmillan. $1.
Dougall, L. The Madonna of a Day. Appletons. $1.
Farnell, L. R. The Cults of the Greek States. Vols. I. and II. Oxford; Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Farnham, A. W. The Oswego Normal Method of Teaching Geography. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Fowler, R. L. The Law of Charitable Uses, Trusts, and Donations. New York: Diossy Law Book Co.
Francke, Prof. Kuno. Social Forces in German Literature. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Gollancz, Israel. Julius Cæsar. Timon of Athens. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Gregory, J. W. The Great Rift Valley: Being the Narrative of a Journey to Mount Kenya and Lake Baringo. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Gréville, Henry. Perdue. W. R. Jenkins. 60c.
Heimweh, Jean. Droit de Conquête et Plébiscite. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Heisler, Rev. C. W. Gerhard's Sacred Meditations. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.
Herron, Prof. G. D. Social Meanings of Religious Experiences. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Hertz, Prof. Heinrich. Miscellaneous Papers. Macmillan. $3.25.
Herwegh, Marcel. Briefe von und an George Herwegh. 1848. Munich: Albert Langen.
Hewett, Prof. W. T. Poems of Uhland. Macmillan. $1.10.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. Teaching the Language-Arts. Appletons. $1.
Hogan, Louise E. How to Feed Children. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Holmes, Mrs. Basil. The London Burial Grounds. Macmillan. $3.50.
Martin, E. A. The Story of a Piece of Coal. Appleton.
The Works of Max Beerbohm. Scribners. $1.25.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. VIII. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Wilson, C. D., and Reeve, J. K. Bible Boys and Girls. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.
Woodward, G. A. Diary of a "Peculiar" Girl. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. 50c.
Wright, Rev. C. H. H. A Primer of Roman Catholicism. F. H. Revell Co. 40c.

JUST PUBLISHED.

Gillet's Euclidean Geometry

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